AMRELI DISTRICT GAZETTEER

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GUJARAT STATE GAZETTEERS

Government of Gujarat

AMRELI DISTRICT

V. 12

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Chief Editor

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GUJARAT STATE GAZETTEERS

AMRELI DISTRICT

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PREFACE

The Gazetteer of the Amreli Prant in Gujarati was first prepared by R. B. Govindbhai Hathibhai Desai of the Baroda State Service and was published in 1920. Besides, the Gazetteer of the Baroda State in English which was prepared by R. B. Govindbhai Hathibhai Desai and Mr. A. B. Clarke and published in 1923 included references to the Amreli district. Allusions to the Amreli district were also found in several books such as 'Rulers of Baroda' prepared by F.A.H. Elliot (1934), 'The Gaekwads of Baroda' editted by J. H. Gense and D. R. Banaji (1942), etc. Since the publication of the Gujarati District Gazetteer in 1920, 50 years have elapsed. During this period, radical changes have occurred in the social, economic and political conditions of the district. On the political side, far-reaching changes have occurred in consequence of the achievement of Independence in 1947, integration of the Baroda State in the former Bombay State in 1949, the reorganisation of the Saurashtra districts in 1959, the bifurcation of the Bombay State and the consequent formation of the separate State of Gujarat in 1960. On the socio-economic side, the implementation of the Five Year Plans initiated by the Planning Commission, Government of India, have considerably changed the urban and rural land-scape of the district. These political and socio-economic changes accompanied by the territorial transfers have made the old Gazetteers obsolete. With the all-round development under the impact of the Five Year Plans, the perspective, scope and other dimensions of the District Gazetteers have undergone a sea-change. They have ceased to be administration-oriented and have become development-oriented.

This is the eighth District Gazetteer in the series of the District Gazetteers published by the Govenment of Gujarat. The data collection for this volume was initiated by my predecessor, Shri R. K. Trivedi. He retired in May, 1969. When I took over as Chief Editor in August, 1969, much of the relevant information was received. I got it processed and put into shape of chapters. Whatever information was wanting was got collected through the district level officers or by visits to the district. The preliminary draft of the District Gazetteer was ready by December, 1969. Thereafter, copies of the different chapters were sent for scrutiny and suggestions to the district level officers and to the Heads of the Departments concerned. The draft chapters were also subjected to internal cross-checking in the office. With the triple check of the draft, factual and other mistakes have been minimised and a balance is achieved in the treatment and presentation of data.

The district has earned a name in several spheres of life. It is well-known for its places of pilgrimage, historical events, educational facilities, literature and arts, agricultural production, minerals and small industries. Among

the places of pilgrimage, Mul-Dwarka near Kodinar, Varah Swarup and Savai Pir in the Jafrabad taluka attract Hindu and Muslim pilgrims from far and wide As regards history, the district was the land of Kathi Darbars who fought a losing battle against the Gohils of Bhavnagar at Chital in 1793. Amreli was the area where the Maratha power drove a wedge into the Kathiawar territory. Further, the Siddis of Janjira State got a foot-hold in Jafrabad within the district. In education, Amreli, Jafrabad and Babapur boast of well-equipped educational institutions. During the Gaikwad regime, Amreli was the first district to be selected for introduction of the compulsory education and the establishment of special schools for the Harijans. It has also the distinction to have a Home Science Institute at Jafrabad, which is unique not only in the district but in the entire State. Shri Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya (Museum) at Amreli is a name to conjure with. It is housed in the old historical residence of Divan Vithalrao Devaji, has sections relating to zoo, international gallery, philately, scientific gallery, Bal Bhavan, all in one. This museum is the only one of its kind in the whole State. Among the saints and poets, Bhoja Bhagat of Fatehpur near Amreli and Shri Yogi Maharaj of Dhari are revered and worshipped by a large number of followers. In the literary world of Gujarat, the name of poet Kalapi, Thakor Saheb Sursinhji, the ruler of the Lathi State shines very bright. The mural paintings of Kumar Saheb Shri Mangalsinhji of Lathi decorate the walls of the Rashtrapati Bhavan in New Delhi and have been appreciated in and outside India Among agricultural production, the district has always stood first in yield per acre of *bajri* in the whole State. On the industrial side, the stones from the Rajula quarries are famous as building material. Rajula and Jafrabad produce salt from their salt-works, which is exported not only to distant parts of India but to foreign countries like Japan and Korea. The district can take pride in having a co-operative sugar factory at Kodinar which has radically changed the economy of the Kodinar taluka. The fishery camp at Jafrabad annually attracts fishermen from distant places like Surat, Bulsar, etc. The Jafrabad fisheries contribute about 15 per cent of the fish to the State production. Bagasara had a very thriving weaving industry and was called the Manchester of Gujarat. Amreli has the unique distinction of being selected in the whole State for starting an open jail in 1968. It was also the first district to start a co-operative bank at Kodinar as far back as 1912 during the Baroda State regime. These facts show that the district has hit firsts in several respects and holds out promise and prospects for its future development. It has thus carved a niche for itself among the districts of Gujarat.

The Ministry of Education, Government of India has sponsored a scheme for the revision and rewriting of the District Gazetteers under which funds are provided for the preparation and publication of the Gazetteers. After

approval of the draft Gazetteer by the Central Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, it is printed and published.

Thanks are due to Dr. P. N. Chopra, Editor, Central Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India, and his editorial staff for scrutiny and useful suggestions for improving the draft District Gazetteer.

I am deeply indebted to Shri Hitendrabhai Desai, Chief Minister of Gujarat, for his continuous keen interest in the Gazetteer work. I am also indebted to Shri L. R. Dalal, I.C.S., Chief Secretary, for his competent guidance and encouragement. I must acknowledge the work done by Research Officers-Sarvashri U. M. Chokshi, M. R. Trivedi, Dr. A. P. Bhatt and R. R. Trivedi and the other research staff.

Ahmedabad,
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G. D. PATEL,
Chief Editor.

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G. D. PATEL

GENERAL CONTENTS

CONTENTS

(Figures in brakets denote page numbers)

PAGES

PAGES

PART VII

PART I

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

ORIGIN

The Amreli district derives its name from the town of Amreli which is the headquarters of the district. The ancient name of Amreli town appears from a stone inscription in the Nagnath temple to have been Amarvalli.[1] The Amreli district originally formed part of the former Baroda State. On integration of that State with Bombay State in May, 1949, the district became a part of the former Bombay State. It consisted of areas of Amreli and Okhamandal districts of the former Baroda State with the addition of Ghogho mahal from Ahmedabad district. The Ghogho mahal and Okhamandal areas were merged in the districts of Bhavnagar and Jamnagar and certain areas from the districts of Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh were transferred to the Amreli district.

LOCATION

Located in the southern part of Saurashtra peninsula, the district is encompassed by north latitudes 20°45′ to 22°15′ and by east longitudes 70°30′ to 71°45′. It is bounded in the north by the Rajkot district, in the east by the Bhavnagar district, on the west by the Junagadh district and to the south by the Arabian Sea. From the view point of geography it is not a compact one, as between Kodinar taluka and the remaining part of the district, Una taluka of Junagadh district is situated.

Area and Population—The district has an area of about 6,760 sq. kms.[2] According to the Census of 1961, the population of the district was 6,67,823 persons of whom 3,40,623 were males and 3,27,200 females.[3] The total rural population of the district according to 1961 Census was 5,25,253 living in 595 villages as against the urban population of 1,42,570 persons spread over 13 towns of different sizes.

ADMINISTRATIVE HISTORY

The district of Amreli as constituted at present is recent in origin but the region comprised therein has administrative history of considerable importance. Some of the present territories of the district called Amreli

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1. It is also called Girvanvalli.

   CAMPBELL J. M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, Bombay, (1884), p. 366.

2. These are provisional figures for 1971 supplied by the Department of Statistics, Government of India.

3. According to the provisional figures of Census of 1971 the total population of the district was 8,47,908 persons of whom 4,33,304 were males and 4,14,604 females.

Prant comprised Amreli, Damnagar, Bhimkatta (peta), Dhari, Khambha (peta), Kodinar, and Ratanpur (peta) mahals which formed part of Baroda State till 1949. In 1949 Amreli Prant along with other Prants of Baroda State was merged with the Bombay State. The district at the time of 1951 Census consisted of the areas of Amreli and Okhamandal districts of former Baroda State and Ghogho mahal which formerly belonged to Ahmedabad district. In 1959, the district was reorganised by effecting several territorial changes, which are dealt with later on.

The present Amreli district has been carved out of a number of princely States of varying status and size. Apart from Amreli Prant of former Baroda State, the district also contains some territories of former Bhavnagar and Junagadh States, States and Estates of Jafrabad, Lathi, Dedan, Bagasara, Charkha, Lakhapadar, Vankia, Kotda Pitha, Garmali Nani-Moti, Jamka, Vadia, Thana-Devli, Amrapur and Babra. Some villages of former outlying State like Bilkha, Jetpur and Bhesan have also been merged into this district. The administrative history of these States and Estates varied considerably. Nothing is much known about the administrative set-up of Amreli during the early period. Mention, however, has been made of Amreli in *Ain-i-Akbari* as constituting a mahal in Akbar's time being included in the *sarkar* of Sorath and *suba* of Gujarat. The Marathas at the commencement of the *mulukgiri* period (1730-1742) acquired the taluka of Amreli partly from Kathis and partly from the Nawab of Junagadh.[1] The manner in which the acquisition of Amreli and Damnagar was made by Gaekwad is worthy of note, in as much as it throws light on the parties to whom they belonged as also period during which the formation of Amreli Prant of Baroda State began to take place. *The Gazetteer of Baroda State* thus states :

> "At the time of the appearance of Damajirao Gaekwad in Kathiawad about the year 1730, Amreli was held by three parties ; Kathis of the Jabalia tribe, some Saiyads who had obtained grants of the land from the Emperor of Delhi, and the Fojdar of Junagadh who was subordinate to the Subedar of Ahmedabad. Damajirao imposed tributes on all of them. The Saiyads being harassed by the Kathis, and being unable to pay the *jamabandi*, sought the protection of Damajirao by ceding to him a one-third share. The Gaekwad in the course of time absorbed the whole of the land of the Saiyads and Kathis, and made good his present footing in two ways :—he appropriated the lands of the Kathis and others on their failure to pay the *Jamabandi*, and he took over the lands of *girassias* who were unable to protect themselves from the attacks of the local chiefs and who surrendered a portion of their patrimony in order to retain the rest.

1. In addition to establishing military outpost (Thana) at Amreli, the Maratha Sardar Damajirao Gaekwad also established a military outpost at Lathi in 1742-43.

The extension of the Amreli *mahal* to its present dimensions was effected by Vithalrao Devaji between 1809 and 1820. The next acquisition in point of order was that of Damnagar formerly called Chhabhadia. This belonged to Lathi which about the year 1730 gave a daughter in marriage to Damajirao. Chhabhadia and six villages formed the marriage dowry, and at the same time the tribute from Lathi was commuted to a *nazarana* of one horse per annum. This gave Damajirao the footing he sought in the heart of the peninsula. After Colonel Walker's settlement Vithalrao Devaji added to this nucleus by getting some villages written over by the Kathis of Babra and others. These acquisitions made up the present Damnagar *mahal* of twenty-six villages."[1]

The fort of Dhari in the last century belonged to the Thebani Kathis of Sarasia who ceded it to a noted free-booter named Raning Vala. The taluka of Dhari was annexed by the Gaekwad when Raning Vala had gone out for *baharvata* or outlawry. The exact date of Gaekwad's entry in Kodinar is not known; but he, it seems had a post at Mul-Dwarka for the maintenance of which the Nawab of Junagadh ceded one-half of the revenue of Kodinar. The remaining share of the Nawab was obtained by the Gaekwad by arrangements made with Bahadur Khan who was assisted by the Gaekwad in establishing his claim to the throne of Junagadh after the death of Nawab Hamid Khan in 1811. In addition to the former Prant of Amreli the district includes various other princely areas. Rajula originally belonged to Babarias of Babariadhar and thereafter to Nawab of Junagadh from whom the State of Bhavnagar annexed it in 1786-87. Chital belonged to Vala Kathis of the Jetpur house; while Jafrabad originally belonged to Danda Rajput State. The *thanadars* of Jafrabad were attacked by Sidi Hilal of the Janjira house, as they resorted to piracy and harassed the trade and shipping of Surat. The *thanadars*, being unable to pay fine sold Jafrabad to Sidi Hilal. The Sidi Hilal transferred it to Nawab of Janjira in 1762. Lathi was a class IV State. It was founded by the Gohil Rajputs whose ancestor Sejakji had migrated to Saurashtra. This Sejakji's sons later on branched off into the ruling line of Bhavnagar. Subsequently, Lathi was under the control of Kathiawad Agency. Lathi formed part of Bhavnagar district from 1949 to 1959.

The Amreli Prant was one of the five districts of Baroda State. For the administrative purposes, the district was sub-divided into talukas (mahals) and peta talukas (peta mahals).

Each taluka or peta taluka consisted of a convenient number of villages grouped together, having regard to area, population and natural boundaries.

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1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, Bombay, (1923), pp. 462-463.

The officer in charge of peta taluka was called a Mahalkari, and in charge of a taluka Vahivatdar (Tehsildar). Three or four talukas formed a sub-division in charge of a Naib Suba (Deputy Collector), while the whole district was in charge of a Suba (Collector and District Magistrate).

The Baroda State was progressive in outlook and had introduced a number of administrative reforms. The administrative set-up in existence in other princely areas of the present day district towards the close of the nineteenth century was essentially feudal and its organisation in the modern sense commenced only after Independence.

Territorial Changes

The boundaries of the Amreli district have changed twice after the Independence. On the merger of the ex-Baroda State with the State of Bombay in 1949, the areas of Baroda State in the Kathiawad peninsula, with the addition of Ghogho mahal of Ahmedabad district, were formed into the district of Amreli. With the reorganisation of the districts of Saurashtra region in July 1959, the Amreli district was reconstituted by including in it, certain talukas, mahals and villages of old Madhya Saurashtra (Rajkot), Gohilwad (Bhavnagar) and Sorath (Junagadh) districts, and by excluding the talukas of Okhamandal and Ghogho which became parts of the newly constituted districts of Jamnagar and Bhavnagar respectively.

The details of territorial changes which have taken place between 1951 and 1968 in the district are shown elaborately in Annexure I given at the end of the Chapter.

Administrative Divisions

The earliest reference about Amreli as an administrative division is made in *Ain-i-Akbari*. It states that Amreli constituted a *mahal* in Akbar's time and was included in the *sarkar* of Sorath and *suba* of Gujarat. "Its revenue then was 17,84,160 dams. A dam was a copper coin equal to $\frac{1}{40}$th of a rupee. The revenue therefore in Mughal times amounted to Rs. 44,604"[1]. The administration of Amreli mahal which was acquired at the commencement of the *mulukgiri* period (1730-1742) partly from Kathis and partly from Nawab of Junagadh, was consolidated under the rule of Dewanji Vithalrao Devaji who was Suba of Amreli mahal in 1820. The Amreli taluka was then divided into 5 *tappas* as under :

1.	Vankia	11 villages
2.	Jalia	14 villages
3.	Haveli	7 villages
4.	Varsada	11 villages
5.	Devalia	9 villages

1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of Baroda State* Vol. II, *Administration*, Bombay (1923), p. 54

From 1820 onwards, the territories of the Gaekwad increased considerably and by 1920, the Amreli Prant consisted of the following talukas, *viz.*, Amreli, Bhimkatta (peta), Damnagar, Ratanpur (peta), Dhari, Khambha (peta), Kodinar, Okhamandal and Beyt. However, Okhamandal and Beyt were separated in 1920 from Amreli Prant and a separate district of Okhamandal was formed. At the time of merger into the Bombay State, the Amreli Prant was divided into two sub-divisions, *viz.*, Amreli and Kodinar.

Amreli sub-division had two mahals and two peta mahals, whereas Kodinar sub-division had two mahals and one peta mahal as follows.

1. Amreli *Vibhag* :	1. Amreli mahal
	2 Damnagar mahal
	3. Bhimkatta peta-mahal
	4. Ratanpur peta-mahal
2 Kodinar *Vibhag*	1. Kodinar mahal
	2. Dhari mahal
	3 Khambha peta-mahal

For the administrative purposes, the Amreli Prant was sub-divided into talukas (mahals) and peta talukas (peta mahals). Each taluka or peta taluka consisted of a convenient number of villages grouped together having regard to area, population and natural boundaries At the village level, the Patel was the lowest functionary in the administration The Vahivatdar was the head of the mahal and the Mahalkari was in charge of the peta-mahal. In between the Patel and the Vahivatdar, there was an intermediate functionary called Tajvijdar, who was a counterpart of the present day Circle Inspector. The head of a Vibhag (Prant) was the Naib-Suba corresponding to the present Prant Officer, *i e*. Assistant or Deputy Collector. At the head of the district administration was the Suba also corresponded to the existing Collector of the district. The Suba was both the Collector and District Magistrate and therefore, he looked after law and order as well as matters relating to land revenue, income-tax and other revenues. The Naib-Suba like present Prant Officer was an assistant to the Suba whose functions were to inspect the records and work of the mahals and peta-mahals. The Vahivatdar and Mahalkari like the present day Mamlatdar and Mahalkari, were responsible for collection of land revenue and taxes and maintenance of boundary marks. The Vahivatdar was also *ex-officio* a Second Class Magistrate with jurisdiction in respect of certain offences. He was assisted in his revenue and judicial work by an Aval Karkun or first clerk, who was particularly responsible for

Jamabandhi. In each taluka there were from 50 to 100 villages, the village being the basis of revenue organisation. Over each group of 15 or 30 villages, called *tappa,* there was a Tajvijdar. The Tajvijdar used to supervise the work of the village Patels and the Talatis in his *tappa* (circle). The Patel was responsible for the collection of revenue and its remittance to the taluka treasury and for maintenance of law and order in his village. He was the President of the village panchayat. The Talati was responsible for the maintenance and custody of the accounts and land records.

Administrative Divisions after Independence

After Independence, the district underwent two reorganisations, first in 1949 and second in 1959. The administrative set-up of the district continued unchanged till 1949 when the former State of Baroda was merged into the Indian Union and the Ghogho mahal of the former Ahmedabad district and the Okhamandal district of the former Baroda State came to be amalgamated with the original Amreli district. In 1949, the entire structure of the administration was reorganised on the pattern of the British districts, which became a principal unit of administration with intermediate functionaries at prant, taluka and village levels. In 1951, the Amreli district was divided into 4 talukas, 3 mahals and 345 villages as shown below:—

Administrative Divisions of Amreli District, 1951

Sl. No.	Taluka/Mahal	Area in sq. miles	Population	No. of towns	No. of villages
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Amreli taluka	259.3	82,549	1	61
2.	Damnagar mahal	146.4	28,748	1	29
3.	Dhari taluka	287.3	44,433	2	59
4.	Ghogho mahal	224.7	41,218	1	62
5.	Khambha mahal	142.3	19,216	..	29
6.	Kodinar taluka	202.7	58,615	1	63
7.	Okhamandal taluka	273.3	42,424	4	42
	Total	**1,536.0**	**317,203**	**10**	**345**

These mahals and talukas were under the charge of the Mahalkaris and the Mamlatdars and the whole district was under the charge of the Collector with his headquarters at Amreli.

In July 1959, as noticed previously the boundaries of the district were enlarged on account of the inclusion of villages from the Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh districts. On bifurcation of the Bombay State, the district has now been included in the Gujarat State. The district as on 31st December, 1968 was divided into two sub-divisions, *viz.*, the Amreli Sub-division and Rajula Sub-division, 7 talukas, 3 mahals, 13 towns and 596 villages as shown in sub-joined Statement 1:1.

STATEMENT I.1

Administrative Divisions as on 31-12-1968

Sl. No.	Sub-Division Taluka/Mahal	No. of towns	No. of villages	Population (According to 1961 Census) Total	Rural	Urban
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Amreli Sub-Division					
1	Amreli Taluka	2	65	109,961	67,679	42,282
2	Lathi-Damnagar Taluka	2	50	68,890	52,369	16,521
3	Babra Taluka	1	57	55,861	47,773	8,088
4	Kunkavav-Vadia Taluka	2	67	92,176	70,108	22,068
5	Lilia Mahal	1	37	41,805	37,528	4,277
	Total	*8*	*276*	*368,693*	*275,457*	*93,236*
	Rajula Sub-Division					
1	Dhari Taluka	1	87	81,707	68,737	12,970
2	Kodinar Taluka	1	63	76,065	64,639	11,426
3	Rajula Taluka	2	91	77,560	60,589	16,971
4	Jafrabad Mahal	1	43	35,741	27,774	7,967
5	Khambha Mahal	..	36	28,057	28,057	..
	Total	*5*	*320*	*299,130*	*249,796*	*49,334*
	District Total	13	596	667,823	525,253	142,570

Headquarters of Rajula Sub-Division is at Amreli.

Source :

The Collector, Amreli district, Amreli.

PHYSICAL FEATURES[1]

Configuration

Amreli district which is situated in the Saurashtra area has the same general aspect as that of the peninsula. The greater part of the district is plain without any trees except those raised along the roads and near wells or along nallas. The district can be divided into four natural divisions according to its topography. To begin with, the northern taluka of Babra and its adjoining areas forming a part of the central tableland, the most elevated region of the Saurashtra peninsula, is formed of undulating land with ill-defined barren hill ranges. Among these hills the highest elevation of about 1,100 feet is at Salemal. The area is popularly known as the 'Panchal' area. Secondly, the northern and eastern parts of Lathi and Amreli talukas are also covered by small hills and plateau. The area between Gir and Panchal is generally plain The third part is the hilly tracts of Gir ranges consisting of Dhari, Khambha and parts of Rajula and Kodinar talukas. The forest covering major portion of this hilly area is a part of the famous Gir forest. This undulating country with low hill ranges shows a rising gradient from east to west with much greater and steeper descent to the south than to the north. The width of the Gir range varies from 10-15 miles and is divided by small valleys into five hill groups of the Sakarla, the Rojmal, the Chakrosar, the Nandivela and the Lapla. In this group of hills the highest elevetion is 2,128 feet at Sakarla The Gir range, which commences some distance south-east of the mount Girnar and extends west to east for about 20-30 miles over a terrain, is covered with forests. The extreme north of Kodinar taluka is hilly and is drained by Shinga ado and Somat rivers. The coastal belt which forms the remaining part of the district is plain.

Hills

The hills in the district are scattered in different talukas. Though they have no high altitudes, they form one of the chief natural features of the district.

The northern taluka of Babra and adjoining areas which form the part of the central tableland of Saurashtra is formed of undulating land with ill-defined barren hill ranges. This area is the most elevated region of the Saurashtra peninsula. The highest elevation of 1,100 feet is at Salemal. The northern and eastern parts of Amreli and Lathi talukas are also covered by small hills and plateau. Apart from these hilly areas, the Gir range,

1. The portion on geography is for the most part based on : (i) Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, Bombay. 1923, (ii) Desai G. H., *Amreli Prant Sarvasangraha*, Baroda, 1920, (iii) Census of India 1961, Gujarat, *District Census Handbook*, *Amreli*, Ahmedabad, (1964), (iv) Government of Bombay, *Socio-Economic Review and District Statistical Abstract of Amreli District*, Bombay, 1958-1959.

which comprises five small hills, *viz.*, Sakarla, Rojmal, Chakrosar, Nandivela and Lapla, stands out as another important hilly areas. The Sakarla hill is located in the extreme west and is 2,128 feet in height; while the Rojmal attains the height of 1,623 feet. The Chakrosar hill is situated between the rivers of Bhimcha and Raval and reaches a height of 1,450 feet. The Nandivela hill stands between the rivers of Bhimcha and Malan and rises to 1,741 feet. The Lapla hill lies in the north-east direction of Nandivela hill and has an altitude of 1,547 feet. In addition to these hills, a cluster of hills called 'zar' stretching over an area of 9 miles are located in Dhari taluka and a few scattered hills, which nowhere attain an altitude of 400 feet are seen in the extreme north of the Kodinar taluka.

DRAINAGE : RIVER SYSTEM

The two belts of hill country that cross the breadth of Saurashtra constitute two distinct water-sheds and from them, as well as, from a narrow stretch of tableland which occupies the centre of the region and forms a connecting link between them, flow all the rivers and streams by which the peninsula is drained. At first swift and clear, gliding along rocky channels between steep banks, these rivers flow from the inner of the two hill tracts, outward to all points of the compass, and winding sluggishly through the lowlying lands of the sea board, enter the sea at points nearly opposite the slopes where they originate. During the south-west monsoon they pour seaward in turbid floods. The Saurashtra rivers are of inconsiderable size. Among them are nine leading streams, the Bhadar, the Shetrunji, the Machhu, the Aji, the Bhogavo, the Sukhabhadar, the Kerri, the Ghelo and the Kalubhar. Three major rivers, *viz.*, the Shetrunji, the Ghelo, and the Kalubhar only flow through some parts of district. Of these rivers the Shetrunji originates in the Gir range, while the Ghelo and the Kalubhar do so from the Panchal area. Besides these the district is also traversed by several other rivers such as the Raval, the Dhatarvadi, the Shingavdo, and the Somat from the Gir ranges and Rangholi, the Vadi, the Thebi, and the Shel from Panchal area. There are also other minor rivers and rivulets called the Gagadio, the Rampar, the Thebi, the Satali, the Dhatarwadi and the Raydi.

The Shetrunji—The Shetrunji rises in the Dhundi hills of the Gir and meanders for about 100 miles in the south-easterly direction to Sultanpur, where it enters the Gulf of Cambay. Flowing at first in a northerly direction, it passes by Dhari, and, about twenty-five miles from its rise, receives the stream of Satali near the village of Babapur of Amreli taluka. Then, bending to the right, it takes a south-westerly course till it falls into the Gulf of Cambay. On its passage, it receives a number of small feeders among them are the Vadi and the Thebi which join it near Amreli, and also the Shel which joins further on. At Krankach the Shetrunji is joined by two streams, having dangerous quicksands and flowing through a nitrous soil whose brackish waters are said to affect the Shetrunji for the rest of its

course. The Shetrunji river has a water-fall of about 50 feet known as Khodiyar Mata fall near Dhari. A Dam has been recently constructed to harness the waters of this river for the purpose of irrigation.

The Shel—The river Shel rises from the hills of the Gir, near Trambakpur of the Dhari taluka and after running a distance of 10 miles in the north-eastern direction flows by the Lakhapadar village. Again after running a distance of 3 miles, it returns to the Dhari taluka and after a course of five miles, flows in the northern direction. Further, it enters the Amreli taluka after a course of 5 miles and flows into the river Shetrunji. The village Dhargani of the Dhari taluka is situated on its bank.

The Thebi—The river Thebi comes from the north of the villages Mota Machiala; Giria and Baxipur of the Amreli taluka. The Vadi coming from the south-easterly direction meets it near Amreli and then both of them flow in the southern direction and merge in the Shetrunji.

The Somat, the Shingavdo, and the Sangavadi—There are three small rivers in Kodinar taluka, the Somat, the Shingavdo and the Sangavadi. All these rivers flow into the Arabian Sea. The river Somat and Sangavadi form the western and eastern boundary of Kodinar taluka. Both these rivers flow through a level plain and their waters are of great use for irrigation. The river Shingavdo is not so useful because of its high banks, but it retains a continuous flow of water all the year round. The other two rivers dry up in summer.

ISLANDS

On the coastal areas of the district are some small islands such as Chanch, Shial Bet and Savai Bet.

Chanch—Chanch, which though at high tide nearly surrounded by water, is never really an island, lies off the south coast about twelve miles west of Mahuva near Motapat creek. It is a narrow strip four or five miles long and about half a mile broad, with its surface rising gradually towards its eastern parts. The village of Chanch stands on its south-eastern corner.

Shial Bet—Shial Bet is a rocky island about three quarters of a mile long and half a mile broad, about three miles west of Chanch island and seven miles east of Jafrabad and about 3 miles south-east of Motapat creek. It is about two miles from the mainland, with a surface rising gradually from the north to the south, where steep clifts overhang the sea. It contains some old fortifications and was once a notorious piratical rendezvous. Its old name is said to have been Sinhlingpur.

Savai Bet—At the eastern end of Shial Bet is a rocky islet called Savai Bet, detached at high tide. There is a tomb of a Pir or Muslim Saint called Savai Pir.

CREEKS

There are five creeks on the coast of the district, *viz.*, (i) Chanch creek, (ii) Mandva creek, (iii) Somar creek, (iv) Motapat creek and (v) Jafrabad creek.

Chanch Creek—The Chanch creek flows through a mangrove swamp at a back of Chanch island about 12 miles west of Mahuva and runs inland for 5 or 6 miles.

Mandva Creek—The Mandva creek is situated near the Velan village from Diu head, the southern extremity of Saurashtra.

Somar Creek—The Somar creek is situated at about 1½ miles to the north of Mul Dwarka near Kodinar.

Motapat Creek—The Motapat creek is situated near the Pipavav Bundar in the Rajula taluka.

Jafrabad Creek—Jafrabad creek about 1 km. wide at entrance trends in a northerly and north-westerly direction from the head of the harbour through flat swampy ground, which is submerged at high spring tides. The length of the creek is about 5 kms. The creek is not navigable.

GEOLOGY[1]

The stratigraphic succession of geological formations in Amreli district is as follows :

Alluvium..........................	Recent to Sub-Recent	
Miliolite-limestone	Pleistocene to Sub-Recent........................	
....	Unconformity....................	
Gaj beds..........................	Miocene (Upper)	Tertiary
Lateritic rocks	Lower Eocene (Sub-Nummulitic)	Tertiary
....	Eruptive Unconformity	....
Deccan Traps with Trap dykes and Inter-Trappean Beds		Cretaceo Eocene

Deccan Traps

The traps cover the whole of the district except for the southern and south-eastern coastal tracts where Tertiary and Post-Tertiary sediments are

1. The Director, Geological Survey of India, Gujarat Circle, Ahmedabad.

exposed. The term "Trap" refers to lava flows of Deccan volcanic episode which occurred towards the close of the Cretaceous period. These lava flows have generally a horizontal repose, but at places they are gently sloping. The trap rocks are mostly basalts and dolerites, though at places trachytes, diorites and obsidian are also included in them. These traps, which form a number of different flows, vary considerably in their character and composition, and are generally, massive or amygdaloidal. At places, breccia, agglomerates, tuffs, ash-beds, etc., are found associated with these flows. Some of the flows are amygdaloidal, with geodes of agate chalcedony quartz, calcite, zeolite, etc., which are found scattered loose in the miniature valleys and *nala* sections in almost the whole of the trappean region. The hill tops mostly consist of hard and tough massive flows. The lava flows vary from medium-grained to aphanitic types Porphyritic types are also known to occur. The traps in general are greenish to dark grey or black in colour. Joints are common in the traps. At places, sheet as well as prismatic joints are noticed. The traps often show typical spheroidal weathering.

Inter-Trappean Beds

During the time that elapsed between the eruption of two successive flows, at places some fluviatile and lacustrine sediments were deposited over the lower flow, which are known as the inter-trappean beds These beds vary in thickness from a few centimetres to about four metres. They consist of grits, sandy shales, marls, etc, with well developed stratification. They are noticed in the valley east of Mitiala to Sakarpara

Trap Dykes

The trap flows are intruded by numerous doleritic dykes which also intersect one another. The dykes, in general, exhibit two trends · north-east-south-west to north-south and east-west. They are generally greenish black to grey in colour and usually show a micro-crystalline to fine-grained texture. Dykes of the acidic variety are reported to occur near Damnagar, Sukhpur and Dalkhania The contracts of the dykes with the Traps are mostly sharp, but at places they are blurred.

Laterite

Laterite is a kind of vesicular or porous, pitted rock occurring in various colours like red, brown, yellow, grey and mottled, depending upon its composition. It is essentially a mixture of the hydrated oxides of aluminium and iron with often a small percentage of other oxides, chief among which are manganese and titanium oxides. The rock first described as laterite by Buchanan from Malabar (Kerala) does contain some clay and considerable amounts of combined silica, but a typical laterite, according to present usuage, is free from clay (kaolin) and the silica present in it is colloidal and mechanically associated.

Two thin zones of laterite occur in between the Deccan Traps and Tertiary sediments from Rajula to Nageshri, north of Jafrabad and near Dungar. The small laterite mound near Dungar exhibits a complete section from lithomargic clays at the bottom and violet to purple colour, soft laterite at the top, with an intervening zone of small nodules of ferruginous bauxite. The bauxite is excessively ferruginous, siliceous and has no economic significance.

Gaj beds

The Gaj beds represent the marine sediments deposited during upper Miocene period. They occur as isolated outcrops along the margin of the traps and laterites and also as some inliers in the alluvium. The largest spread of the rocks of the Gaj series is nearly 30 sq. kms., covering the country between Mithapur in the west to Lunsapur in the south-east. Another rectangular patch of these rocks of about five square kilometres occurs to the north of the village Kadiali. They rest unconformably on the lateritic rocks. The Gaj beds are made up of highly fossiliferous, dirty yellow, marly limestone with an apparently high ferruginous content. The fossils of the Gaj beds belong to the Zoantharia, Bryozoa, Pelecypod and Gastropod groups. Ostrea and a few small detached masses of the coral stylocoenia vicaryi, Haim, are associated with limestone near Dungar. The fossils associated with the marly limestone are cardium, pecten, cardita Arca, ostrea, Cypraea, Natica and Fusus.

Miliolite

Miliolite is a finely oolitic limestone, almost free from sand or other foreign particles. The nuclei of the oolite grains are mostly organic, the grains themselves being minute foraminifers. The rock is usually thin bedded, with strong oblique lamination. The formation appears to be mostly a marine littoral deposit, although it may also represent in part a wind borne (*aeolian*) accumulation. It forms low hills and cliffs along the coast. It overlaps the Gaj beds and also covers a large part of the lateritic formation Extensive, isolated outcrops are found between Kagvadar and Jafrabad. Miliolite limestone, has several variants such as gritty, concretionary limestone, consolidated calcareous sandstone, grit and conglomerate. The purer limestone bands are homogeneous, fine-grained and are white, grey or green in colour and fine-to coarse-grained in texture. The rocks of this series are nearly always horizontal and occasionally dip at 10° to 15° towards south, south-east or south-west. Strong oblique lamination in various directions due to current bedding or aeolian action is a common structural feature of this formation.

Alluvium

Among the sub-recent and recent formations occurring in this district are a variety of deposits such as, sand dunes, consolidated shore sand,

tidal mud flats, raised beaches, coral reefs and fresh water alluvium. Sand dunes are common in the vicinity of the seacoast. Fresh water alluvium occurs along the river valleys.

Soil covering the limestone area is shallow and very frequently sandy. That covering the traps and its marginal country is the highly fertile, black cotton soil or 'regur' and the one covering the laterite is usually of a dark red colour and highly plastic.

Earthquake

Deccan traps form by far the major rock unit in the district which are generally regarded to be free from earthquake shocks. An Inter-Trappean bed 2.5 to 3 metres in thickness, is associated with these basalts and the contact of these two formations likely to be a zone of weakness. The area lies within the seismic zone of moderate intensity. The first sounds connected with earthquakes were heard on the 9th August, 1960, and intermittently continued for about 17 days. About 20 sounds were recorded between 9th and 26th August, 1960, but only those heard on 9th August, 1960, were followed by slight tremors. The tremors felt at 2.00 p. m. on the 9th August, 1960, were regarded to be by far the most intense. They lasted for about two seconds and were felt within a radius of about two kilometres from village Vankia. The tremors were felt by people both indoors and outdoors. There was absolutely no loss to property or life.

USEFUL MINERALS AND ROCKS

The important minerals and useful rocks found in the Amreli district are:

(1) Bauxite
(2) Calcite
(3) Gypsum
(4) Iron-ore
(5) Lime-stone
(6) Semi-precious Stones
(7) Mineral Pigments
(8) Salt
(9) Oil and Natural Gas
(10) Building Stones.

Bauxite

Along the Deccan trap margins, not far away from the coastal areas, small irregular bauxite horizons are found associated with ferruginous

laterite. They are located near villages of Dungar (21°04′, 71°34′), Kagvadar (20°58′: 71°25′), Balanivav (20°57′, 71°21′) and Chhelana (20°59′:70°18′). The bauxite occurring near Dungar and Kagvadar is highly ferruginous and siliceous and therefore, it has got no economic significance. The Directorate of Geology and Mining, Government of Gujarat, has carried out some detailed investigations on the bauxite deposits of Balanivav and Chhelana, and has estimated the reserves at about 16,000 tonnes. The average thickness of the bauxite horizon is about one metre. The bauxite is soft, massive and fawn grey in colour.

Calcite

The most important occurrence of calcite is located at about 400 metres west of the village Ingorala (21°13′: 71°14′). The principal lenses of calcite are found in the low hillocks to the south and south-east of Palana hill (Δ 1,133 feet). The veins are associated with greenish porphyritic traps. intruded by basic trap dykes. The veins have a variable strike, their general direction being west-north-west—east-south-east. The reserves of calcite are estimated to be of the order of 58,000 tonnes with an average depth of about 3 metres. Two other small parallel veins of calcite run discontinuously in the east-north-east—west-south-west direction and extend for about 1,000 to 1,200 metres north and north-east of Ingorala (21°13′:71°14′). They are more cherty than calcareous. These deposits are probably of hydro-thermal origin. The calcite crystals are too opaque to be suitable for optical purposes. They can, however, be utilised in the manufacture of chemicals.

Gypsum

Gypsum is found associated with the Tertiary clays and alluvium around Jafrabad (21°52′:71°22′), Balanivav (20°57′:71°21′) and Kagvadar (20°58′: 71°21′), villages. The mineral does not form a regular bed, but occurs as crystals of selenite or as small tabular pieces, sparsely distributed in the clayey mass. The quantity of gypsum that can be recovered from this occurrence would be very meagre and in any case its recovery would be uneconomic.

However, it is reported that, by keeping the sea water at a concertration of 12°-20° Beaume and exposing it to solar evaporation, the salt works authorities at Jafrabad were able to recover about 2,000 tonnes and 3,000 tonnes of gypsum during 1950 and 1951 respectively. By putting into use a greater number of pans, it may be possible to produce the quantity of gypsum sufficient for the proposed cement plant at Jafrabad.

Iron-ore

Low grade lateritic iron-ore occurs as small pallets and nuggets, north-west of Char and to the south of Nunarda. A number of impure

hematite bands associated with felspar-porphyry dykes in trap flows are noticed at about 2 kms. north-west of Chhelana. They have no economic significance

Lime-stone

The important lime-stone deposits of Amreli district are confined to the coastal areas. Some parts of the miliolite lime-stone in the coastal areas around Jafrabad and Kodinar are suitable for the manufacture of cement. The lime-stone from Advi, Dolasa and Harmadia in Kodinar is reported to contain on an average 93 per cent $CaCO_3$, 1.2 per cent $MgCO_3$, and 1.6 per cent Al_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 and 3 per cent of SiO_2.

Extensive lime-stone deposits are also located in the coastal areas between Kodinar and Nageshri The thickness of lime-stone varies from a few metres to 30 metres.

The miliolite lime-stone deposits near Jafrabad (20°52'·71°22') were investigated by the Geological Survey of India in the year 1952 Buff coloured miliolite lime-stone, with a northerly dip of about 30 degrees, intercalated with soft sandstones occurs in an area of about ten square kilometres within the limits of Babarkot (20°52': 71°24'), Khakardar (20°54': 72°27') and Vandh (20°54': 70°25') to the east of Jafrabad creek. To the south-west of Jafrabad, there is a similar occurrence covering an area of about 13 square kilometres between Jafrabad and Balana (20°51'. 71°17'). More than half of these areas are covered by calcareous sand-dunes ranging in height from 15 to 30 metres. These extensive deposits of calcareous sand can be put into use in cement manufacture by blending the sand with lime-stone, and such utilization will mean a saving in the cost of quarrying and crushing A sample from the sand dune to the north of Babarkot, analysed by the Geological Survey of India laboratory shows. 16.62 per cent SiO_2, 36.80 per cent CaO, 3.80 per cent MgO and 3.03 per cent of Fe_2O_3. About 43 million tonnes of lime-stone may be available from the area to the east of Jafrabad and 21 million tonnes from the area south-east of Jafrabad Analyses of the representative samples show that the material is suitable for cement manufacture. The analysis carried out in the Geological Survey of India laboratory showed 48 per cent CaO and 7 per cent of SiO_2 in this lime-stone. The Directorate of Geology and Mining, Government of Gujarat, has carried out detailed prospecting of these lime-stone deposits and has estimated about 169 million tonnes of lime-stone suitable for manufacture of cement.

Semi-precious Stones

Some semi-precious stones are commonly found in the Deccan trap country and they also occur occasionally as pebbles in the Gaj conglomerates. These semi-precious stones comprise quartz, amethyst,

rose-quartz, chalcedony, agate, opal, etc. Milky white chalcedony and agate form geodes in the traps near Khambha, while pebbles of agate and chalcedony are found loose in a *nala* between Hemal and Sokhda.

Mineral Pigments

Ochres are naturally coloured mineral pigments, which are used in the manufacture of paints and for colouring ceramic goods, cement, linoleum, rubber, etc. A few small pockets of ochres of variegated colours are associated with the laterite near Amreli, Dungar, Kagvadar, etc.

Salt

Most of the production of salt in Saurashtra is by direct solar evaporation of the sea water. Well mechanised salt works are located at Jafrabad and Port Victor in the Amreli district. M/s. Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works Ltd., Jafrabad, and M/s. Kathiawar Industries Ltd., Jafrabad, are the main salt producers in this district.

Oil and Natural Gas

Natural gas is mostly associated with petroleum, but is also connected with buried organic remains in the Tertiary sediments along the coastal areas of Saurashtra.

In 1921, Captain Palmer investigated the occurrence of natural inflammable gas reported from four out of the seven bore holes, varying in depth from 23 to 55 metres, drilled at Jagatia, 12.8 kms. north-east of Kodinar (20°47′:70°45′) in Amreli district. Judging from an examination of the cores, he opined that there were no chances of striking gas by further deep boring at Jagatia on account of the proximity of the Deccan trap recorded at a depth of 56 metres in one of the bore holes. No gas field of economic value was conceived as the gas was under no great pressure; the closed pressures were found to vary from 12.5 lbs. per square inch to practically nil.

Building Stones

Amreli district is well endowed with various kinds of rocks suitable for construction of buildings. A greater part of this district is covered by Deccan lava flows. These rocks are dense, hard and durable and are locally quarried near Amreli and Rajula for building purposes. The trap rocks are also used as road metal, railway ballast and concrete aggregates. Dykes of acidic trap rock suitable for decorative building stones are reported from Damnagar (21°42′:71°35′), Sakhpur (21°33′:71°34′) and Dalkhania (21°14′:70°59′). The laterite of the area can also be utilized as building stone. Laterite is easily dressed when freshly quarried, hardens on exposure

and becomes a fairly durable stone. Clays suitable for the manufacture of building bricks are found in the river alluvium almost throughout the district.

Ground Water

The traps are unreliable yielders of water, although water for domestic needs may be obtained usually between the depths of 5 and 15 metres, the water being stored in thick soil cover, decomposed rock, contact between two flows, joints and fissures. Porous 'ashbed', sedimentary Inter-Trappeans, red bole and vesicular horizons in the trap rock augment the yield of water. Association of dykes with the trap rock favours the yield of water. Grits, coarse sand-stones, lime-stones, conglomerates of Gaj series form good aquifers. Adequate supply of potable water is at times obtained from the contact of Trap-Gaj rocks. With the exception of lowlying tidal flats or saline tracts along the coast, copious supply of ground water for domestic needs and for minor irrigation is available from alluvium and miliolite formation within a shallow depth from the surface. At places in the costal area near Jafrabad, abundant water for domestic as well as irrigation purposes is obtained, the water table there being generally within four metres in winter.

ENGINEERING GEOLOGY

(i) Khodiar Mata Project

The proposed site for a dam across the Shetrunji river is located about four kilometres north-east of Dhari (21°20′: 71°1′) in the Amreli district. According to the project report, the catchment area for this dam will be of the order of some 385 square kilometres. The height of the dam will be about 29 metres, with a base width of about 18 metres. Several geologically favourable prospective alignments were selected from time to time; all these are located upstream of the Khodiar mata falls.

The Deccan lava flows occupy the entire region around Dhari. The average thickness of the lava flows in the area examined is of the order of 2.5 to 3.00 metres. The lava flows strike east-north-east—west-south-west with low dips of about 5 degrees towards south-south-east. This strike of the lava flows is oblique to the river flow. Foundation drilling was conducted by the Geological Survey of India to find out the thickness of the lava flows. It was noticed from the results of six boreholes that basaltic materials of foundation grade occurs at a reasonable depth between 2 and 12 metres from the surface. Based on preliminary geological investigation, construction of a low pick-up weir at 'Medhi' appears to be a feasible proposition. Prominent cracks and joints will have to be cement-grouted as a precaution against percolation losses.

(ii) *Shingoda River Project*

The proposed weir site of the Shingoda river project is located near village Ghantwad (20°56′ : 70°46′) in Kodinar taluka of Amreli district. The project envisage the construction of a rubble masonry weir with a flat crest, vertical upstream face and a suitable batter on the down stream. The proposed site is located just upstream of Ghantwad village and to the west of the Jamwala-Kodinar road. The topography of the area in the vicinity of the weir site is almost flat with a few minor knolls and low ridges to the north-west. The rock formations near the weir site comprises traps of the Gretaceo-Eocene age. The traps consist of the hard and compact, massive lava flows without vesicles and also of the much weathered, softer lavas with amygdales and vesicles which may be void or filled with secondary minerals. Basic instructions of fine-to medium grained, massive dolerities in the form of veins, dykes and sills have been noticed near Ghantwad. The individual flows appear to be of much smaller thickness. Overlying in patches and usually resting on the weathered surface of the traps are the creamish to pale buff coloured miliolite lime-stones of Recent to Sub-Recent age.

Because of the soft nature and highly weathered condition of these lava flows, this bed will have to be stripped for the purpose of good foundation. From the geological conditions prevailing the area near the proposed weir site at Ghantwad, construction of low diversion weir across the Shingoda river appears to be a feasible proposition. Cement-grouting of creaks, joints and fissures, which traverse all the lava flows, should be made for effectively checking the possibility of excessive leakage through these likely zones of percolation.

FLORA

FORESTS

Historical Background

Except the areas which have been transferred in 1959 from the Saurashtra districts, the district originally was under the jurisdiction of the former Baroda State. During the Baroda regime, the forests were divided into reserved forests and unreserved forests. The area under the reserved forest was to be maintained permanently as forest and the entire non-reserved area was left open to cultivation. The forests were worked on the *ijara* or contract system. This led to very heavy and irregular fellings of trees. This was detrimental to the growth of good forests. Subsequently in the eighties of the last century the forests were placed under the management of the department which permitted exploitation by contractors on a permit system. This method aggravated the damage done to forests. It is on record. that the management of forests changed several hands due to lack of a fixed policy in the matter of forest preservation and exploitation.

The Amreli forests were next in importance to the Navsari forests in the Baroda State. In 1903-04 the area under reserved forests admeasured about 70 sq. miles and was located in villages of Jaljiyada, Dudhala, Gadia, Chavand, Dalkhania, Govindpur and Valadhar. They stretched over the Gir hills in long narrow strips. The areas were continuous in the most parts excepting for a few isolated blocks of small sizes in the outlying Kodinar taluka, near the seacoast. Thus the aggregate forest areas (70 sq. miles) formed about 6 per cent of the territorial area of the Amreli district of the former Baroda State.

Before 1891, grass from the Gir forests used to be sold on the *ijara* or contract system. The Ijardar levied fees from Bharvad, Rabari, Charan, Kathi and other graziers who damaged forest by the lopping of the branches of the trees to provide as folder. Such destruction of forests was seriously extentuated in the famine of 1900, by the herds of cattle brought from Okhamandal and Beyt Dwarka by the Vaghers.

The Present Position

In 1967-68 the total forest areas in the district which forms a part of Bhavnagar Forest Division admeasured about 260.75 sq. kms.[1]

Talukawise Area under Forests and Vidis in Amreli District

Sl. No.	Name of taluka	Forest area in sq. kms.	Vidis area in sq. kms.
1	2	3	4
1	Khambha	72.21	..
2	Dhari	116.62	..
3	Rajula	33.27	3.57
4	Jafrabad	1 81	..
5	Kunkavav-Vadia	..	0.67
6	Kodinar	12.94	..
7	Lilia	..	1.35
8	Lathi	6.20	6.57
9	Babra	7.06	4.48
	Total	250.11	10.64

It will appear from the above statement that there is concentration of forest areas in the talukas of Dhari, Khambha and Rajula. The areas under *vidis* are found mostly in the talukas of Lathi, Babra and Rajula.

Schemes regarding Forest Development under the Plans

Several schemes for forest development and scientific exploitation have been undertaken under the Five Year Plans. They are dealt with in Chapter IV—Agriculture and Irrigation.

1. This also includes the area of grasslands.

The forests and vegetation in the district can be classified into two distinct categories, *viz.*, (i) open scrub forest and (ii) grasslands.

(i) Open scrub forest

The forest area extending over 250.11 sq. kms. fall under the category of 'Dry deciduous thorny scrub forests' and are located in Dhari, Khambha, Borala and Sarasia regions of the district. In certain parts where man has interfered more, the tree growth is poor resulting in large open tracts with very sparse vegetation. In other areas, where man has interfered less particularly in parts of Dhari taluka, the vegetation cover is comparatively better. The tree growth is well in the areas bordering the Junagadh district.

The chief factors responsible for the poor tree growth are mal-treatment, indiscriminate grazing and illicit fellings, poor and shallow soil and lesser rainfall, causing innumerable blanks and semi-blanks. The main species of trees growing in these areas are:

	Botanical name	Gujarati name
1.	*Acacia arabica*	*baval*
2.	*Acacia senegal*	*gorad*
3.	*Acacia catechu*	*khair*
4.	*Capparis aphylla*	*kerdo*
5.	*Diospyros melanoxylon*	*timru*
6.	*Butea monosperma*	*khakhro*
7.	*Melia azadirachta*	*limdo*
8.	*Morinda tinctoria*	*alleri*
9.	*Phyllanthus emblica*	*ambla*
10.	*Anogeissus latifolia*	*dhavdo*
11.	*Eugenia jambolana*	*Jambu*
12.	*Ailanthus excelsa*	*arduso*
13.	*Salmalia malabarica*	*semal*
14.	*Terminalia chebula*	*harda*
15.	*Boswellia serrata*	*saledi*

SCRUBS

1.	*Holarrhena antidysenterica*	*kado*
2.	*Cassia auriculata*	*aval*
3.	*Tecoma undulata*	*ragatroydo*

(ii) Grasslands

The grasslands locally termed as *vidis*, are also in charge of the Forest Department. The *vidis* are classified like the forest according to the area

and production of grass into two categories, *viz.*, reserved and non-reserved. In 1967-68, total area of grasslands in the district was 10.64 sq. kms., and it produced approximately 10,000 kgs. of grass. From the reserved *vidis* grass is collected and stored by the department for supply to the people during scarcity years which are very frequent. The following species of grass are found in *vidis*.

Botanical name	Gujarati name
1. *Andropogon foueolatus*	*saniar*
2. *Andropogon ischiemum*	*zinzvo*
3. *Cymbopogon scoenanthus*	*rosha*

The forests in the district only satisfy requirements of firewood and charcoal. The minor forest produce such as honey, timru leaves, etc., are available in small quantities, while timber is not at all available. As the forest area in the district is limited, it is necessary to improve the existing forests and to increase the area under it by afforestation schemes[1]. Systematic efforts have been made in the Five Year Plans to increase the meagre area of forests which the district at present has.

ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT OF WILD LIFE

The administration and management of wild life in the district rests entirely with the Forests Department. The Chief Conservator of Forests of the State acts also as Wild Life Preservation Officer, while the Divisional and Range Forest Officers function as *ex-officio* Wild Life Wardens and Assistant Wild Life Wardens respectively within their jurisdictions.

The areas bordering the Junagadh district have a fairly good stock of wild life such as panther and occasional lion (carnivora) and spotted deer, nilgai, wild boar, rabbits, porcupines (harbivora), etc. The preservation and protection of wild life are regulated by the Gujarat Wild Animals and Wild Birds Protection Act, 1963

The Act prohibits unsporting methods of hunting and provides for the destruction of dangerous animals which have become a menace to human life or property. Wild life is classified into small game, big game and special big game, for each of which a separate kind of game licence has been prescribed. Game licences, which are valid for the entire State, can be obtained from the Wild Life Preservation Officer or from Wild Life Wardens on payment of requisite fees. However, there is no game sanctuary in the district.

1. For details of these schemes see Chapter IV—Agriculture and Irrigation.

Fruit Trees

Meagre rainfall and inadequate water facilities are not conductive to the growth of orchards and plantations in the district. However, in certain talukas such as Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar and Khambha where conditions permit, the fruit cultivation has been undertaken. The total area covered under 'fruits' approximates 2,625 acres. The fruits commonly grown in the district are mangoes, coconut, *chikoo*, *papaiya* and banana.

Mango—Mango trees are found in the talukas of Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar and Khambha. The popular variety known as 'Kesar' is tried since 5 to 6 years in the district.

Coconut—The coconut trees are generally grown in the coastal areas of the district.

Chikoo—*Chikoos* are grown in Dhari and Kodinar talukas of the district.

Papaiya—The popular variety of *papaiya* grown in the district in the talukas of Dhari and Kodinar is known as 'Madhubindu'.

Banana—Bananas are grown in Dhari and Kodinar talukas of the district.

Fauna

Domestic Animals

The chief domestic animals noticed in the district are horses, oxen, cows, buffaloes, sheep, goats and asses.

The horses are owned by well-to-do farmers and those who plough tongas. The horses of well-known Kathiawad breed are few and are still to be found with some of the farmers residing in Amreli, Dhari, Khambha, and Babra talukas. However, of late, breeders have not carried on their business with the same zeal as they used to do in the past. The South African Horse Sickness disease has reduced the population of horses considerably. At present a good Kathiawadi horse fetches the price from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,500.

Of oxen, there are two varieties, *viz.*, the Gir and Kankrej breeds. The cultivators, who are well-to-do usually keep oxen of the Kankrej breed. The ordinary food of oxen consists of hay and millet stalks, but when hard-worked, they are allowed a daily feed of sesamum or *guvar*. A good pair of oxen of Kankrej breed may cost from Rs. 1,000 to 2,000. A good pair of Gir breed of oxen fetches in the market a price from Rs. 500 to Rs. 800.

Cows are found of the Gir breed and non-descript breed. The Gir cows have long been famous. The cows of the Kankrej breed have increased in number on account of the movement of draught-hit cattle from Kutch district. A good Gir or Kankrej cow costs about Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 and gives 4 to 5 litres of milk every morning and evening.

The buffaloes found in the district are of famous Jafrabadi breed. Cultivators throughout the district keep buffaloes according to their means. The milk is either sold, or turned into curds for making *ghee*. Good buffalo costs from Rs. 1,000 to 1,500 and gives about 7 to 10 litres of milk every morning and evening.

Only a few villages in the district keep bulls and he-buffaloes for breeding purposes. Other villages have to depend upon bulls and he-buffaloes kept by Rabaris and Shepherds He-buffaloes are not used as draught cattle and are usually starved to death after birth, or are sent to the nearest *panjarapole*, where Jains feed and rear them, but take no work from them.

Asses are largely kept by potters for carrying load. An ass can be purchased for about Rs. 75 to Rs. 100.

Sheep and goats are kept in large flocks by Bharvads, who use their milk for making *ghee* and their wool for weaving cloth and blankets. A good quality goat may be had for Rs 100 and sheep for Rs. 50 or Rs. 60.

The domestic fowls in the district are kept mainly for eggs. The price of an egg varies from 25 paise to 50 paise. Price of a fowl of good quality varies from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12. In the district, some people have taken to poultry-farming on modern lines.

Wild Animals

The district consists of hilly terrain and some forest areas located in Dhari, Rajula and Kodinar talukas. The ecological background of the district thus provides a good habitat to wild life.

Lion—Panthera leo (Linnaeus) (*Sinh*)—Among the wild animals, the most famous is the lion found mainly in the Gir forests, but sometimes, they straw into adjoining parts of the Kodinar and Dhari talukas. Compared with African lion, the mane of the Gir lion is shorter and its colour lighter. It is so much like a camel in colour that in common parlance, it is called the camel tiger or *untiovagh*.

The lion is about the same size as the tiger, some what more bulky but probably an inch or two shorter. The length of the full grown male varies from about 8 ft. 10 inches to 9 feet 6 inches. The lioness is about 10 to 12 inches shorter. The lion is rather darker than the lioness and is a little heavier about the head and shoulders. It is more gregarious than the tiger, and moves in family groups so much so that three generations may sometimes be found in one group. In Saurashtra the lion is called *savaj*. The lioness is called *sinh* or *sinv*, and a pair of male lions hunting together are called *belar*.

In the face of merciless persecution, the lion population in northern and central India was steadily driven westwards into the Gir forests which now represents the last refuge of this species. It is now being guarded and protected, and has thus been saved from total extinction.

Panther—Panthera paradus (Linnaeus) (*Dipdo*) is found in some of the hills, but has almost disappeared from the plains. The animal is exceeddingly daring.

Hyaena—Hyaena hyaena (Linnaeus) (*Jarakh*)—It has jaws of great power, a keen scent, and is an unrivalled scavanger. It lives on bones and dead animals.

Wolf—Canis lupus (Linnaeus) (*Nar*) is very bold. It is normally found in forests and shrubby areas. When pinched with hunger, wolf will attack a flocks of sheep and goats in broad day even in presence of shepherd. It hunts with great skill and perseverance, and a prey, pursued by three or four wolves, rarely escapes from its clutches.

Jackal—Canis aureus (Linnaeus) (*Shial*) is much smaller than a wolf but makes up in cunning for what it lacks in size and strength. It is a nocturnal creature and feeds on carcasses and left over of the prey abandoned by others.

Fox—Vulpes vulpes (Linnaeus) (*Lonkdi*) is quite active It is a small pretty creature and has a long black tipped tail. It is common in stony ridges where it lives in holes or burrows. It feeds upon smaller vertebrates like frogs, reptiles, birds, etc. It is known to destroy melon plantations. On account of its agility, it can easily escape from its enemies.

Civet Cat—Viverricula indica (Desmarest)—Its colour is black. It is a nocturnal creature. It lives amidst grass or scrub. It also takes shelter in home or caves. It is found wandering in cities. Its food consists of rats squirrels, lizards, insects, starchy roots, fruits, etc.

Mongoose—Herpests edwards (Geoffrey) (*nolio*)—There are two varieties of mongoose, one has a white tip on his tail and the other has a tail

with a black tip. They are very useful in killing snakes and other vermins, but are great enemies of fowls. They live in holes and burrows. They live on small rodents and insects and are helpful in keeping down vermins like mice, rats, etc.

Wild Boar—Sus scrofa (Linnaeus) (*Bhund*) abounds in the Gir forest and hilly areas and harass cultivators by destroying their food crops.

Indian Porcupine—Hystrix indica (Kerr) (*Shahudi*) is exceedingly common throughout Saurashtra in hilly areas and along the seashore. It feeds on grain, fruits, roots, etc. It comes out at night and seeks its food in fields and gardens. Porcupines are very fond of melons and cause much havoc to melon beds.

Sambhar—Cervus unicolor (Kerr) (*Sambhar*) is occasionally found in forests near Kodinar and Dhari.

Spotted Deer—Axis axis (Erxleben) (*Chital*) is found in small number in the district.

Black Buck—Antelope cervicapra (Linnaeus) (*Kaliar*) is to be found in almost all talukas of the district. However, it is seen in large herds in Amreli and Dhari talukas.

Common Hare—Lepus nigricollis (Guveir) (*Saslu*) is commonly met with throughout the district. It is an animal of the open plains and fields. It is a great source of nuisance and menace to crops. It is nocturnal in habit and remain in burrows or on grassy patches in field during day time.

In addition to these, following animals are also met within the district, *viz.*, bats, hedge-hogs, ground shrew, Indian mole rat, squirrel, common langur, etc.

Birds

Some of the common birds of the district are house crow, jungle crow, babbler, bulbul, pied chat, bee-eater, flycatcher, pigeon, swallow, sunbird, hawk, kingfisher, owl, vulture, kite, eagle, dove, tern, heron, sand piper, egret, stork, common myna, parakeet, peacock, parrot, woodpecker, duck, sarus crane, baya (weaver bird), robin, house sparrow, cuckoo and white wagtail.

The House Crow—Corvus splendens splendens (Vieillot) is smaller and more familiar than the jungle crow. The jungle crow *corvus marcrorhynchos* (Wagler) is of glossy black colour. The house crow is gregarious and more intelligent. Both the crows are scavangers

Common Babbler—Argya caudata caudata (Dumont) is a dull-coloured small bird and is generally found wandering about in grass, scrubs, gardens and bushes.

Brown-backed Indian Robin—Saxicoloides fulicata cambayensis (Latham) is one of the most familiar birds. It is observed in open tracts and fields.

Common Mayna—Acridothers tristis tristis (Linnaeus) is common bird in India. It is not found in jungles but is essentially a bird usually found within the vicinity of towns, cultivated gardens and orchards. It is an excellent pet and favourite cage-bird. It can be taught to speak. It mainly feeds on insects.

White Wagtail—Motacilla alba dukhunensis (Sykes) haunts villages and gardens and feeds upon insects. Even when seated, its tail wags all the time.

Sunbird—Cinnyris asiatica (Latham) is found in forests, thin jungles, cultivated fields and gardens. Where there are flowers, this bird is seen sucking nectar from them with its bill. The bird is gregarious.

Peacock—Pavo cristatus (Linnaeus) is the most magnificent bird. It is found in wild and domestic condition. Locally known as *mor*, if male and *dhel* if female, this bird has replaced swan as the carrier of Saraswati, the goddess of learning. Peacock has been the most popular and widely accepted theme of expression in classical literature and folklore as well as in architecture because of its innate beauty of colours and form. The sweeping and graceful colours of its neck, body and plumage, artistic features, its melodious voice and its unique dance has endeared peacock to the people of India and made it the "National Bird". There will hardly be a village which has not a peacock as one of its denizens. Its feathers are used for decoration. It moves in a small group.

Woodpecker—Dryobates mahrattensis mahrattensis (Latham) is a bird with special features. A typical woodpecker has a long pointed chisel-shaped bill and stiff wedge-shaped tail. It feeds upon insects.

Parakeet-Psittacula krameri borealis (Neum) is also a common bird which can be caged and taught to speak a few words. It eats fruits and grain.

Kingfisher—Alcedo atthis (Linnaeus) is generally found near water. It is of deep colours, with long and compressed bill. It perches in pairs on a branch of a tree near water and on spotting a fish, it dives down in the water to catch it.

Owl—Athena brama indica (Franklin) is a widely distributed bird. It is nocturnal in habit. It is an insect feeder and is also known to kill small birds, lizards, rodents, etc. It is considered a bird of ill omen.

Vulture—Sarcogyps calvus (Scopoli). *Raj Gidh* is a large fearsome bird. It has a powerful curved beak and feeds on dead bodies and finishes it off in one sitting. It emits a disagreeable odour.

Common Pariah Kite—Milvus migrans govinda (Sykes) is one of our most familiar birds habitually frequenting the neighbourhood of towns and villages as well as outlying shepherd wadas. The kite kills small birds and mammals of every kind. It also feeds on frogs, lizards and grasshoppers.

Hawk—Spizaetus Cirrhatus (Gmelin) is a smaller bird with a shorter wing in comparison to kite. Its bill is short and powerful. It feeds on hares, rabbits, squirrels and birds of all kinds.

Falcon—Falco jugger (Gray) is fairly common prey bird feeding upon birds, rodents, grasshoppers, carcasses, etc.

Eagle—Aquilia rapax vindhiana (Franklin) (*Garud*) shows wide range of colours It is a common resident bird. It is also a prey bird like kite showing similar habits.

Sarus Crane—Antigone antigone antigone (Linnaeus) (*Saras*) is the resident of Saurashtra and Gujarat. The bird moves with its mate throughout the life From their behaviour, there is a proverb that if a couple moves together for long, it is called a *Saras jodu*. It is said that if one is killed, the other also dies in grief. It is found in open plains. It feeds on grains, shoots, insects and kills reptiles.

Cattle Egret—Bubulcus ibis coromandus (Boddaert) is very common all over Gujarat and Saurashtra. The bird moves with grazing cattle and feeds on grasshoppers and other insects. It also tries to pick up insects found over the body of the cattle.

Bava or Common Weaver Bird—Ploceus philippinus philippinus (Linnaeus) (*Sugari*) is a bird of open country, cultivated fields and gardens. It feeds on seeds and ripe grain. It breeds in colonies and builds its hanging nests.

Indian House Swifts—Micropus affinis affinis (Gray) is a bird of capricious movements, flying at tremendous speed and it feeds on flying insects. With the help of saliva it builds nests under arches and gateways every where. It also builds nests in the corner of walls, ceilings, buildings deserted or occupied.

Painted stork—Ibis leucocephalus leucocephalus (Pennant) (*Baglo*) is more commonly found near ponds, marshes, etc., and sometimes near streams. It feeds on fish and frogs, which predominate in their diet.

Green Bee-eater—Merops orientalis orientalis (Latham) Bee-eater is green-coloured with pigtail feathers. It is seen perching on wires or twigs. From an exposed perch, where the bird sits swinging its pointed tail slowly up and down, it darts after a winged insect, snaps it up in mid-air and thereafter circles gracefully back on outstretched motionless wings. The victim is killed and swallowed.

SNAKES*

The district abounds in poisonous and non-poisonous snakes. Among the poisonous snakes can be counted the Krait, Cobra and *Chital*. Among the non-poisonous snakes fall python, John's (sand boa, rat snake, wolf snake and sand snake. They vary in size, shape and colour. Generally, they hide themselves in earth crevices and vegetation. Some of them are nocturnal in habits. Generally, they feed on insects, worms and small mammals. Poisonous snakes need timely medical treatment. The details about the snakes in the district are given snake-wise below.

NON-POISONOUS SNAKES

FAMILY : TYPHLOPIDAE

The Common Blind Snake (Typhlops Brahminus) (Chakran)

This small snake is commonly known to be a blind snake. The snake looks like an earthworm but it has a much darker colour and has imbricate scales all over the body. The snake is brown in colour with a shining chocolate hue above, lighter below and the head and tail region slightly whitish. It is found rotting in vegetation and is sometimes found from uncleaned bathrooms in houses in rural areas. This type of snake is also found in the heaps of garbage and unused damp places in the rural areas. Its food consists of small worms and soft-bodied small insects. The head is not distinct from the body. The tail end is blunt with a small point. In soft earth, it burrows rapidly. It opens and shuts the mouth, as if it threatens to bite.

FAMILY BOIDAE

Indian Python (Python Molurus) (Ajgar)

This is commonly known in this area as *Ajgar*. In Gujarat the people are familiar with it because it is frequently carried by snake charmers for collecting money. It is the largest snake found in India. It can climb trees and other high structures and can even swim. It feeds on birds, reptiles and small mammals and other creatures too. Though it is a lethargic snake, at sight of the prey, it becomes very active, hurling its head at the

* Dr R. V. Shah, Prof. and Head of the Department of Zoology, M. S. University, Baroda.

body of the prey and strangulating the victim with the coils of its muscular body. It is observed that even large animals like goats, boars and other similar ones are strangled to death and swallowed by the python.

John's Sand Boa (Eryx Johnii)

This snake is very common in the district as also in many parts of Gujarat and is more docile than sand boa *Eryx conicus*. It is chocolate in colour and belongs to python family. It lies buried in soil and is called John's sand boa. This snake is much longer than sand boa. The males of the species are smaller than females. The tail of this snake is blunt. Its chief food consists of frogs, mice, lizards, etc.

Rat Snake (Ptyas Mucosus)

The snake is called a rat snake as it is found to control the rodent growth. It is found all over the State including the district of Amreli and grows to a length of about 2.25 metres. It is known as *dhaman* in Gujarati. This widely distributed type is dirty yellow coloured with tips of black scales. It is timid and often stays on trees. It feeds on rats, mammals, frogs, toads lizards and even snakes.

Common Wolf Snake (Lycodon Aulicus)

This common wolf snake is also one of the common snakes seen in many parts of Gujarat including Amreli district. Its body is usually brown or purple with white transverse lines. It is a garden snake more or less nocturnal in habits. It climbs trees readily and moves with agility on land. It is very vicious and bites ferociously. Its main food consists of lizards, skins, frogs, geckos, birds, eggs, etc. It readily enters human habitations and is oviparous. It is known as *suwarnapankha* in Gujarati.

Buff striped Keel-Back (Natrix Stolata)

This snake is commonly found in the vicinity of ponds, lakes and other water reservoirs. Its colour is greenish dark with light coloured spots. It is seen in large number during monsoon months. It is very docile and harmless. It eats frogs and other animals found near the banks of lakes and ponds and vegetation nearby. It often dips in water and remains in water for a long time. On account of this habit it is often known as fresh water snake.

Sand Snake (Psammophis Leithi)

This light brown snake has four deep brown longitudinal stripes. It has black spots at its outer edges. It is timid and often remains in hiding or tries to hide. Its eyes are small with round pupils. It feeds on frogs, and lizards and is oviparous. It may enter house gardens in the rural areas but with the least disturbance it sneaks away.

POISONOUS SNAKES

FAMILY : ELAPIDAE

The Common Krait—(Bungarus Caeruleus)—It is known in Gujarati as *konotaro*. It is one of the most deadly poisonous snakes found in India. Its venom is neurotoxic, and affects the nerves and the person bitten feels sleepy and if not treated in time may not survive. The colour is smooth, steel blue and often shining. There are rows of paired white stripes across the body. These colours and stripes vary. These snakes are nocturnal in habit and live in cracks, walls or in heaps of stones or bricks. It not only eats mice but also other snakes too.

Cobra—(Naja Naja)—It is known as *nag* in Gujarati and is the most dreaded snake in Gujarat. Snake charmers, commonly use this snake for exhibition before the people for earning livelihood. The head of this snake is not very distinct from the neck. The neck region is dilatable, the ribs being elongate. The expansion of neck region forms the hood which bears on the upper side a binocoellate mark which some people call a mark of spectacle or the figure of ten. There is a white band in the region where the hood touches the body region.

It is generally found all over the district. It is found in fields, open land, and in forests alike and is seen in evening or early morning. This type of snake lives in old thatched roofed houses. In very old buildings, it has been seen in crevices, presumably in the cool dark places where it finds its prey. It is known to feed on frogs and small mammals. People fear it and worship it on *nagpanchami* day. The poison of this snake is primarily neurotoxic. There is less pain, slight swelling, irritation and death is due to respiratory failure. If the snake injects sufficient amount of venom the only remedy is the antivenin.

Russell's Viper (Vipera Russelli)—The chital, as it is known in Gujarati is also one of the deadliest poisonous snakes. It is found in bushy and rocky regions. It is brown with deep elliptical patches that run in three rows. The colour of the snake is normally brown. It can strike even from behind. The chief food of this snake comprises small mammals like rats, mice, lizards and birds also. It bites very fiercely and the poison causes a burning pain and coagulation of blood.

Side Winder or *Saw Scaled Viper (Schis Carinatus)*—This Type of small poisonous snake has a head that is triangular. It bears a typical white arrow mark on a brown background. The body of the snake is greyish brown with a series of pale marks forming a curve over the body. The under surface of the snake is white with black spots at the two ends of the scales. It feeds on yong frogs, lizards, snakes, scorpions and a large number of insects. It is often seen on the bare rocks even on hot days. On being disturbed, it strikes, rising upto a height of about eight inches from the ground.

There are always complications after a bite. There is swelling and oozing of blood and within 24 to 36 hours, the man starts bleeding from gums, kidneys, nose, etc. These complications kill a man after a number of days.

FISH

The Amreli district has a good coastline with rich fishing areas at Jafrabad, Kotda, Madhwad (Velan), Shiyal bet, Mul Dwarka, Victor, Bherai and Chanch. In these villages communities like Kolis, Kharvas and Machhiaras carry on their traditional occupation of fishing. The coast line of the Kodinar taluka has flourishing trade in respect of pomfret variety of fish while Jafrabad is popularly known as 'Dry Fish Zone' and is one of the most important fishing ports in Gujarat State. There are about 400 active fisherman at Jafrabad belonging to the Koli and Kharva community. The fisheries yield of the district comprise varieties such as Pomfrets, Hilsa, Prawns, Bombay ducks, Sharks, Coilia, etc. The fishery resources are so rich, that even fishermen from Bulsar district are also attracted during the fishery camp between October and January. Jafrabad fisheries provide about 15 per cent of the total production of the State.

The following varieties of fish are available at Jafrabad and other nearby ports :

Species of Fish available in the District

Sl. No.	Scientific name	English name	Local name
1.	*Harpodon nehereus*	Bombay Duck	*Bumla*
2.	*Coilia dussumieri*	Golden Anchovy	*Mendeli*
3.	*Trichiurus savala*	Ribbon Fish	*Patti*
4.	*Penaeus indicus*	Prawn	*Jinga*
5.	*Metapenaeus monoceros*	Prawn	*Jinga*
6.	*Mugil dussumieri*	Mullet	*Boyee*

The fishing season covers the months from October to January.

CLIMATE[1]

The climate of this district is characterised by general dryness except during the south-west monsoon season and a hot summer. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from December to February is followed by the hot season lasting upto about the middle of June. The period from mid-June to about the third week of September constitutes the south-west monsoon season. The succeeding period lasting till the end

1. The Deputy Director General of Observatories (Climatology and Geophysics), Poona.

of November may be termed the post-monsoon season. The former *Gazetteer of Baroda State* has given a very vivid description of the climate of the district as follows :

> "The climate of the Amreli district is, in general, pleasant and healthy. Amreli and Damnagar are the most pleasant parts of the district. January, February and March are marked by heavy dew and thick fogs, which are unhealthy. The hot whether begins in April and lasts till the rain falls about the middle of June. The hot wind blows in various degrees but the hot weather months (April to June) are the healthiest in the year. There is always a cool breeze at night."[1]

RAINFALL

Records of rainfall in the district are available for only three stations, out of which for only one station the records are available for 70 years, the data for the other two stations being available for only 34 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in Statements I.2 and I.3. The annual rainfall in the district is 540.0 mm. (21.26"). About 89 per cent of the annual rainfall in the district is received during the south-west monsoon season, July being the rainiest month. The annual rainfall in the district decreases from the coast towards the interior and varies from 582.4 mm. (22 93") at Jafrabad on the coast to 515.0 mm. (20.27") at Amreli in the interior of the district. The variation in the annual rainfall from year to year is very large. During the fifty year period 1901 to 1950 the highest annual rainfall amounting to 303 per cent of the normal occurred in 1926. The lowest annual rainfall which was only 36 per cent of the normal occurred in 1918. In the same 50 years period, the annual rainfall in the district was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 16 years. During this period, two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once and three consecutive years occurred twice. Considering the rainfall at the individual stations, two consecutive years of rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal occurred two or three times at all the three stations. Even 3 consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred thrice and 4 consecutive years once at Jafrabad. It will be seen from Statement I.3 that the annual rainfall in the district was between 300 and 800 mm. (11.81" and 31.50") in 39 years out of 50.

On an average, there are about 29 rainy days (*i. e.*, days with rainfall of 2.5 mm.—10 cents or more) in a year in the district. This number decreases from 31 at Jafrabad near the coast to 27 at Amreli in the interior of the district. ·

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1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, *Bombay*, (1923) p. 48.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded in the district was 308.6 mm. (12.15") at Amreli on June 21, 1946.

Temperature

There is no meterological observatory in the district. The information is, therefore, compiled on the basis of records of the observatories in the neighbouring district where similar conditions prevail. From about the beginning of March, temperature rises steadily till May which is the hottest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 40°C (104.0°F) and the mean daily minimum at about 24°C. (75.2°F.). In the coastal parts of the district the day temperature may be lower by a couple of degrees. The day temperatures may sometimes go above 45°C (113.0°F) during the summer. The onset of the south-west monsoon by about the middle of June lowers temperatures somewhat, but this fact does not give relief from the heat, because of the added discomfort from the increased humidity in the air brought in by the south-west monsoon. With the withdrawal of the monsoon by about the third week of September, there is a slight increase in the day temperature in October, but the nights become progressively cooler. After October, both day and night temperatures rapidly decrease till January which is the coolest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at about 29 0°C (84.2°F) and the mean daily minimum at about 11°C. (51.8° F) in the interior of the district. It is warmer by about a couple of degrees in the coastal parts. In the cold season, in the rear of western disturbances passing across north India, the district sometimes experiences cold waves, when the minimum temperatures may go down to the freezing point of water, particularly in the interior of the district.

Humidity

During the south-west monsoon season the relative humidities are generally over 60 per cent. In the rest of the year, the air is generally dry, the driest part of the year being the summer season with the relative humidities in the afternoons being less than 25 per cent.

Cloudiness

The skies are heavily clouded on many days during the south-west monsoon season. Cloudiness decreases during the post monsoon season. In the rest of the year, skies are generally clear or lightly clouded.

Winds

Winds are generally light to moderate in strength with some increase in force during the late summer and monsoon seasons. Westerly to south-westerly winds blow during the south-west monsoon season. In October, winds are more commonly westerly or north-westerly. But

northerly to north-easterly winds also begin to blow on some days. Winds from directions between north and east are more common in the next three months. In February and March, winds are mostly from directions between west and north-east. In the summer season, they blow from directions between south-west and north-west.

Special Weather Phenomena

In association with cyclonic storms in the Arabian Sea in the post monsoon season and to a lesser extent in May and June, the district experiences strong winds and widespread rain. Thunderstorms occur all the year round, their frequency being more in the period, May to October. Occasional fogs occur in the cold season.

STATEMENT

Normals and Extremes

Station 1	No. of years of data 2		January 3	February 4	March 5	April 6	May 7	June 8	July 9	August 10	September 11
Amreli ..	24	(a)	0.8	0.5	0.5	11.9	5.6	100.6	178.6	99.1	87.6
		(b)	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	4.0	9.1	6.1	4.9
Khambha .	24	(a)	0.0	0.8	0.0	11.2	5.6	108.7	180.1	82.0	84.6
		(b)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0 2	0.3	4.8	10.5	5 7	5.3
Jafrabad	50	(a)	2.5	2.0	1.0	5.1	7.4	106.9	236.2	99.3	85.6
		(b)	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	4.5	11.8	7.7	4.6
Amreli (District)		(a)	1.1	1.1	0.5	9.4	6.2	105.4	198.3	93.5	86.0
		(b)	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	4 4	10.5	6.5	4.9

Source :

Deputy Director General of Observatories, (Climatology and Geophysics), Poona.

(a) Normal rainfall in mm; (b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

* Based on all available data upto 1960.

** Years given in brackets.

I.2

of Rainfall

October 12	November 13	December 14	Annual 15	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year** 16	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year** 17	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours* Amount (mm) 18	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours* Date 19
24.4	3.1	2.3	515.0	166 (1946)	55 (1938)	308.6	1946 June, 21
1.5	0.5	0.2	27.0				
33.3	15.0	1.3	522.6	161 (1947)	50 (1938)	212.1	1943 July, 31
1.9	0.7	0.1	29.5				
27.2	7.9	1.0	582.4	282 (1926)	34 (1918)	304.8	1929 July, 13
1.1	0.3	0 1	31.0				
28.3	8.7	1.5	540.0	303 (1926)	36 (1918)		
1.5	0.5	0.1	29.1				

STATEMENT I.8

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District

(Data, 1901—1950)

Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
101—200	1	901—1000	1
201—300	4	1001—1100	0
301—400	8	1101—1200	0
401—500	12	1201—1300	1
501—600	7	1301—1400	0
601—700	5	1401—1500	0
701—800	7	1501—1600	0
801—900	3	1601—1700	1

ANNEXURE I

Territorial Changes in Amreli District

(1) Under Bombay Government Resolution, R. D., T.L.C. 3858-c, dated 19-6-1959.

(*a*) 1 town, *viz*, Chital (14.9) and the following 5 villages were transferred from Lathi mahal of Bhavnagar district to Amreli taluka of Amreli district :—

Monapur (6 8), Rikadia (2 5) Shedubhar (9.0), Haripura (3.1) and Suragpur (0.9).

(*b*) Kunkavav-Vadia taluka (366.1) *minus* 1 town, *viz*, Vasavad (3.6) and the following 15 villages were transferred from Rajkot district to newly constituted Kunkavav-Vadia taluka of Amreli district :—

Devla (4 5), Mota-Khambhalia (4.7), Sajadiali (1 1), Mota-Sakhpur (2.1), Nana-Sakhpur (1.3), Vinjivad (1 9), Sultanpur (11 2), Moti-Khilori (6.8), Derdi (12.2), Ransiki (3.8), Ravna (3 6), Dharala (2 0), Pat-Khilori (3.0), Kadaya (1.3) and Dangavadar (3 4).

Out of these villages, 2 villages, *viz*, Kadaya (1 3) and Dangavadar (3.4) were transferred to Dhari taluka of Amreli district and the remaining 13 villages and one town, *viz*, Vasavad were transferred to Gondal taluka of Rajkot district.

(c) The following 4 villages were transferred from Bhesan mahal of Junagadh district to newly constituted Kunkavav-Vadia taluka of Amreli district :—

Haliad-Juni (4 4), Haliad-Navi (4.3), Ghantiyan (1 8) and Manekwada Akalapati (1 4)

(*d*) Nava-Zanzaria village (1.4) was transferred from Visavadar taluka of Junagadh district to newly constituted Kunkavav-Vadia taluka of Amreli district

(*e*) Babra taluka (142.4) *minus* the following 10 villages were transferred from Rajkot district to Amreli district :—

Veraval (1.0), Patiali (2.2), Ankadia (2 8), Sompalpur (1 4), Belda (1 0), Sanala (1 4), Sartanpur (1.3), Vanala (1 4), Bhadli (0.6) and Gadhala (1.9).

(*f*) Lilia mahal (152 1) was transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district.

(*g*) The following 9 villages were transferred from Visavadar taluka of Junagadh district to Dhari taluka of Amreli district —

Kagadadi (4 3), Kothapipalia (5.7), Bhader (4 7), Monvel (3.8), Kathrota (1 4), Mundia (0 5), Boradia (5.5), Mevasa (0 9) and Malsika (4.3).

(*h*) The following 17 villages were transferred from Kundla taluka of Bhavnagar district to Dhari taluka of Amreli district :—

Shilana (5 3), Jamka (5.0), Khizadia (3.0), Sanalia (3.0), Halaria (5.0), Halaria (4 0), Bhath (3.0), Gigasan (6 0), Bhayavadar (3 0), Dahida (4 0), Dhasa (8.5), Dholarva (4.0), Manavav (5 0), Padargadh (6.0), Garmali Moti (4.0), Charkha (8.0) and Khathivadar (3.0).

ANNEXURE I—*contd.*

(*i*) The following 7 villages were transferred from Una taluka of Junagadh district to Khambha mahal of Amreli district :—

Dhandhvana (2 4), Dadli (2 9), Pachpachiya (1.5), Salva (2.3), Rabarika (1 5), Ambaliala (3.9) and Pipania (2 2).

(*j*) Rajula mahal (292.3) *minus* Biladi village (2.5), was transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district.

(*k*) Entire Jafrabad mahal (148.6) was transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district

(*l*) The following 4 villages were transferred from Una taluka of Junagadh district to Jafrabad mahal of Amreli district :—

Kerala (1 5), Chitrasar (2 2), Rohisa (6 9) and Dharabandar (1 5).

(*m*) Entire Ghogho mahal (224 7) was transferred from Amreli district to Bhavnagar district

(*n*) Entire Okhamandal taluka (273 3) was transferred from Amreli district to Jamnagar district

(*o*) Damnagar mahal was abolished in 1959, out of 30 villages of this mahal—

(*i*) Khijadia village (2 8) was transferred to Gadhada mahal of Bhavnagar district

(*ii*) The following 6 villages were transferred to Vallabhipur mahal of Bhavnagar district

Navagam (2 5), Italia (0 9), Ratanpar (4 5), Mevasa (6 7), Monpur (24.4) and Shahpur (4 1)

(*iii*) The remaining 22 villages as under and 1 town, *viz*., Damnagar (8 4), were transferred to Lathi taluka of Amreli district :—

Chavand (12 7), Hirana (4 1), Karkalia (2 6), Virpur (3 2), Nana Rajkot (5 2) Ambardi (4 9), Chhabhadia (5 0), Narangadh (2 0), Memada (1 4), Kanchardi (5 0), Dahithara (3 0), Havatad (2 9), Dhruphania (4 1), Padarsinga (4 8), Rabhada (3 0), Thansa (3 2) Suvagadh (3.1), Hajiradhar (2 3) Muliapat (1 7), Dhamel (7 1), Shakhapur (8 7) and Methali (2 1)

(*p*) Lathi taluka, reconstituted as under, was transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district—

(*i*) 22 villages and 1 town, *viz*, Damnagar of Damnagar mahal of Amreli district as above

(*ii*) Former Lathi mahal (214 8) of Bhavnagar district *minus* 1 town, *viz*, Chital (14 9) and the following 17 villages :—

Monapur (6 8), Rikadia (2 5), Shedubhar (9 0), Haripura (3 1), Suragpur (0.9), Anida (2.9), Bhandaria (2 1), Chosla (2 1), Dhasa (6 7), Jalalpur (8 9), Limbala (2 2), Malpara (2 1), Mandva (7.5), Mota Umrala (3.5), Nana Umrala (4 5), Patan (4 2) and Rasnal (3 8)

Out of these 1 town, *viz*, Chital and the first 5 villages were transferred to Amreli taluka of Amreli district and the remaining 12 villages were transferred to Gadhada mahal of Bhavnagar district.

ANNEXURE I—*contd.*

(2) Under Saurashtra Government Notification No. R E. V/5 dated 23-4-1951, the following 2 villages were transferred from Gadhada mahal of Bhavnagar district to Babra taluka of Amreli district :—

Barvala (3.6) and Nani Kundal (3.9).

(3) Under Bombay Government Resolution No. T. L C. 1959-26272-C, dated 30-3-1960, the following 3 villages were transferred from Rajula mahal of Amreli district to Mahuva taluka of Bhavnagar district :—

Kankot (1.0), Pipalava Mota (1.4) and Pipalava Nana (0.6).

(4) Under Saurashtra Government, Revenue Department Notification, dated 25-8-1949, the following 3 villages were transferred from Umrala mahal of Bhavnagar district to Lathi taluka of the same district —

Bhalvav (4 6), Bhatvadar (6.3) and Vikalia (5.8) Subsequently the village Vikalia was transferred to Gadhada mahal of Bhavnagar district under Bombay Government Resolution, R D, No. T. L C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959.

Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D. No. T. L. C., 3858-C dated 19-6-1959, 1 town, *viz.*, Chital (14 9) and the following 5 villages were transferred from (former) Lathi mahal of Bhavnagar district to Amreli taluka of Amreli district :—

Monapur (6 8) Rikadia (2 5), Shedubhar (9.0), Haripura (3 1) and Suragpur (0 9).

Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D, No. T L. C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959, Kunkavav-Vadia taluka was newly constituted of the following :—

(1) Kunkavav-Vadia taluka (299.6) *minus* 1 town, *viz.*, Vasavad (3.6) and the 15 villages as above were transferred from Rajkot district

(2) The following 4 villages were transferred from Bhesan mahal of Junagadh district:—

Haladi Juni (4 4), Haladi Navi (4.3), Ghantiyan (1 8) and Manekwada Akalapati (1 4).

(3) Nava-Zanzaria village (1.4) was transferred from Visavadar taluka of Junagadh district.

(1) Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D. No T. L. C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959, Babra talulka (127 4) *minus* 10 villages as above was transferred from Rajkot district to Amreli district.

(2) Under Saurashtra Government Notification No R. E. V 5 dated 23-4-1951, the following villages were transferred from Gadhada mahal of Bhavnagar district to Babra taluka of Amreli district :

Babra (3 6) and Nani Kundal (3 9).

(1) Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D., No. T. L. C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959, Lathi taluka was newly constituted of the following:

(*a*) Former Lathi mahal (127 1) of Bhavnagar district *minus* 1 town, *viz.*, Chital and 17 villages as above.

(*b*) 1 town, *viz.*, Damnagar and 22 villages of Damnagar mahal of Amreli district as above

ANNEXURE I—*contd.*

(2) Under Saurashtra Government Revenue Department Notification dated 25-8-1949, read with Bombay Government Resolution, R. D., No. T. L. C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959, the following 2 villages were transferred from Umrala mahal of Bhavnagar district to newly constituted Lathi taluka of Amreli district : —

Bhalvav (4 6) and Bhatvadar (6 3).

Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D., No. T. L. C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959, Lilia mahal (152.1) was transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district.

Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D., No. T. L. C. 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959.

(*a*) The following 2 villages were transferred from Kunkavav-Vadia taluka of Rajkot district to Dhari taluka of Amreli district –
Kadaya (1.3) and Dangavadar (3.4)

(*b*) 9 villages as above were transferred from Visavadar taluka of Junagadh district to Dhari taluka of Amreli district

(*c*) 17 villages as above were transferred from Kundla taluka of Bhavnagar district to Dhari taluka of Amreli district

Under Bombay Government Resolution R D, No T L C 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959, 7 villages as above were transferred from Una taluka of Junagadh district to Khambha mahal of Amreli district.

(1) Under Bombay Government Resolution R D., No T L. C 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959.

(*a*) Rajula mahal (289 8) *minus* Biladi village (2 5) was transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district

(*b*) The following 5 villages were transferred from Jafrabad mahal (other than the portion transferred to Amreli district of Bhavnagar district to Rajula mahal of Amreli district -

Nangala (2 3), Katar Katarpara (8 8), Katar (included in Katarpara) Bhudni (3 7) and Kotadi (9.5).

(2) Under Bombay Government Resolution No T L C. 1959-26272-C, dated 30-3-1960, 3 villages as above were transferred from Rajula mahal of Amreli district to Mahuva taluka of Bhavnagar district

Under Bombay Government Resolution R. D, No. T L. C, 3858-C, dated 19-6-1959.

(*a*) Jafrabad mahal (124 3), *minus* 5 villages as above were transferred from Bhavnagar district to Amreli district

(*b*) The following 4 villages were transferred from Una taluka of Junagadh district to Jafrabad mahal of Amreli district :—

Kerala (1.5), Chitrasar (2 2), Rohisa (6.9) and Dharabandar (1.5).

PART II

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

PRE-HISTORY

The tools of the Early Stone Age and the Middle Stone Age are not yet met with in the Amreli District but they are recently discovered in the adjoining districts of Rajkot and Surendranagar.[1] It is probable that pre-historic man of those ages inhabited this region as well. Microliths of the Late Stone Age were collected by Bruce Foote from several sites in the Amreli district in 1893-94.[2] They were recovered from near Damnagar, the top of Ambaldi Hill, near Khijadia *tappa,* Ankadia Mota, Babapur Ambavelli, Sonaria, Samadhiala, Umaria, Ningala *tappa,* Bharad, the hill east of Khodiar Mata, Shivad, Khabarda (Kubda), Jira, and Chanchai. The tools were made of chalcedony, quartz, agate, chert, etc., and include cores, scrapers, flakes, etc.

They are of very small size ranging from 2 cm. to 7 cm. and were fastened into handles of wood or bone or both. The few geometric microliths found at Rangpur (Surendranagar district) in a pre-Harappan context are unassociated with pottery and provisionally dated 3000 B. C.[3] The potsherds found in association with microliths in the upper strata indicate the use of ceramic art in the last phase of the Late Stone Age.

PROTO-HISTORY

The archaeological explorations and excavations have revealed an outstanding site of the Harappan civilization at Lothal (in Dholka taluka) near the eastern coast of the peninsula of Saurashtra. The frequent calamity of floods compelled the Harappans to leave Lothal and shift to places in the interior of the peninsula. Rangpur became an important site of the late Harappans who settled in the interior. The migrating Harappans reached as far as Amreli, as can be made out from their ceramic wares and other equipment, found at Vaniavadar and Mota Machiala situated within a radius of 10 kms. from Amreli. Vaniavadar (21°39′ N. 71°09′ E) situated on the right bank of the river Vadi was a Late Harappan settle-

1. Tools of the Early Stone Age are discovered at Rojdi, Jetalpur and Halvad, and those of the Middle Stone Age at Rojdi and Rangpur (H. D. SANKALIA, *Prehistory and Protohistory in India and Pakistan*, p. 120; S. R. RAO, in *Ancient India*, Nos. 18-19, pp. 48-50; H D SANKALIA, *'Saurashtra-na-Pasana-yugo'*, *Pathik*, Vol. VII, Nos. 10-11, pp 31-35

2. BRUCE FOOTE, *The Foote Collection of Indian Prehistoric and Protohistoric Antiquities, Catalogue Raisonne*, pp. 214-237.

3. RAO S. R., *Excavations at Amreli*, p. 4

ment, whereas Mota Machiala on the left bank of the river Thebi was occupied by the Lustrous Red Ware folk, who lingered on here for a long time and are found to have survived upto *circa* 100 B. C.[1] Amreli too came under the influence of a chalcolithic community which used short parallel-sided blades of chalcedony, copper objects and wheel-turned pottery mostly plain, but well-formed. Although very little is known of the nature of their dwellings and their food habits, some lurid light is thrown on the funerary practice of the inhabitants. They cremated the dead and buried the cinerary vessels along with charred bones in small pits on the banks of the river Thebi[2] From the very beginning, the crematorium of Amreli was situated on the right bank of the Thebi river, where two urn-burials were encountered in the earliest levels. The introduction of copper and its alloys for tool-making reduced the use of stone implements. The chalcolithic settlers did not continue any of the ceramic traditions of the Lustrous Red Ware people and must have therefore been late arrivals on the scene. They used plain wheel-turned vessels similar to those in the Coarse Red Ware of Rangpur III. It must have taken considerable time for them to give up these traditions and degenerate into poor ill-equipped squatters. Hence the chalcolithic culture of Amreli may not be earlier than the 7th century B. C.[3] This small settlement was of short duration, as the site was abandoned for a long time until it came to be reoccupied in the 1st century B. C. by a more advanced people of the iron age.[4] Remains of the Harappan Ware have also been recovered from the vicinity of Timana in the Shetrunji Valley.[5]

The Puranic Tradition

According to the Puranic tradition, Revata, son of Anarta and grandson of Saryati (the son of Manu Vaivasvata), ruled at Kushasthali, which, when deserted, was reoccupied by the Yadava immigrants from Mathura, who renovated the fort and restored the city under the new name Dvaravati or Dvaraka Modern Dwarka at the north-western tip of the peninsula claims to represent Dvaraka of the Yadavas. But the claim is also shared by some other sites in Saurashtra. The most outstanding site among these is Mul Dwarka near Kodinar in this district. Local tradition represents it as occupying the site of the original Dvaraka of the Yadavas. It has an extensive rock lying just on the sea-shore and is marked by a solitary shrine,

1. Rao S. R , *Excavations at Amreli*, p. 15
2. *Ibid.*, pp. 12-13, 37
3. *Ibid*, p. 15
4. *Ibid.*, p. 13
5. *Indian Archaeology-A Review*, 1960-61, p. 7

which is dedicated to Vishnu and bears the name of Dvarakadhish.[1] The late Hirananda Shastri, the Director of the Archaeological Department of the former Baroda State, drew attention to the Puranic account[2] about the submergence of the original Dwarka excepting the shrine of the Lord and favoured the identification of original Dwaraka with Mul Dwaraka near Kodinar.[3] The problem of the location of original Dwaraka still remains unsettled, as archaeological explorations and excavations at Mul Dwaraka as well as at Dwaraka have not yielded traces of human habitation before the Mauryan period.

Early History

Unfortunately, the early history of this district cannot be traced before the 1st century B. C. However, it is quite likely that the Mauryan kings (*circa* 322-185 B. C.) of Magadha ruled over the entire peninsula of Saurashtra and administered the province through governors, two of whom are mentioned in the Junagadh Rock Inscription of King Rudradaman I, in connection with the Sudarsana Dam at Girinagara near Mt. Girnar in the Junagadh district. In the 1st century B. C., the peninsula seems to have been under the sway of the Indo-Greek Kings from Bactria, as implied by the provenance of the coins of Menander and Apollodotus II.

Archaeological Excavations

The Archaeological Department of the erstwhile Baroda State carried on excavations at the Gohilwad *timbo* (mound) during the years from 1934-35 to 1938-39. The mound is situated to the north of the confluence of the rivulets Vadi and Thebi in the vicinity of Amreli. The excavations were conducted by Dr. Hirananda Shastri, the Director of the Archaeological Department. The importance of the mound as an ancient site was brought to his notice by Shri Prataprai Mehta, a local scholar interested in archaeological research. In 1932, the mound yielded a copper-plate grant issued in the (Valabhi) year 297 (616 A. D.). Excavations were further continued upto 1945 by Shri A. S. Gadre, who succeeded Dr. Shastri. The excavations yielded various antiquities, assigned to the period from the 2nd to the 7th century A. D. They included terracotta figures, pottery including two potsherds bearing Hellenistic influence, remains of burials in graves and urns, beads, Andhra and Kshatrapa coins, a hoard of some 2000 silver coins of Kumaragupta I, carved bangle pieces, pieces of

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1. Gadre A. S., *Archaeology in Baroda*, p. 6.

2. *Vishnu Purana* V, 38, 9 *Bhagavat Purana*, XI, 31,23.

3. *Annual Report of the Director of Archaeology*, Baroda State, (1934-35), pp. 16 f.

conch shells, a goldsmith's claymound with figures derivative of Graeco-Roman Amorini, and a clay die of Śīlāditya besides some structural remains.[1]

The excavations were resumed in 1952-53 by Shri S. R. Rao, the then Assistant Superintendent of Archaeology, Western Circle, with a view to obtaining strtigraphic and ceramic evidence by digging on more scientific lines and to determine the archaeological context of the antiquities recovered in the earlier excavations. The operations yielded a continuous history of Amreli from the 1st century B. C. to the end of the 8th century A. D. They provided adequate data for studying the various aspects of the Red Polished Ware and dating it from the middle of the 1st century B. C. to the end of the 4th century A. D. They threw lurid light on the social and economic conditions of the people and their religious practices in the Kshatrapa and Gupta periods. The excavations also yielded several terracotta plaques and figurines of Buddhist and Brahmanical faiths. The ceramic and stratigraphic data, substantialized by the numismatic and epigraphical data, have proved very useful in determining the date of the different successive strata yielding remains of human habitation.[2]

Excavations at Mul Dwarka in the Kodinar taluka conducted by the Archaeological Department of the former Baroda State from 1934 to 1936 yielded some earlier structural remains below the present solitary shrine on the rock.[3]

THE INDO-GREEK PERIOD

Structural remains in the form of rubble-footings to mud-walls were encountered on the banks of the rivers, Thebi and Vadi in the excavations at *Gohilwad Timbo* near Amreli in 1952-53. Even now, it is common in this district to provide rubble-footing to mud-walls as a precaution against erosion. Phases of building activity have been dated from the 1st century A. D. to 4th century A. D. No bricks sun-dried or kiln-burnt were ever used in this phase for building purposes. The excavations further showed the element of town-planning as evidenced by the fact that the lane is 7 ft. wide and the walls of the houses run parallel to each other.[4]

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1. *Annual Reports*,. Archaeological Department, Baroda State, (1934-35 to 1944-45); GADRE A. S., *Archaeology in Baroda*, pp. 4-6.
2. RAO S. R., *Excavations at Amreli*, pp. 11-17.
3. *Annual Report of the Director of Archaeology*, Baroda State, (1934-35); pp. 16-17.

   Annual Report of the Department of Archaeology, (1935-36), pp. 19-20.
4. RAO S. R., *Excavations at Amreli*, pp. 31-82

The Black Polished Ware was given up and was replaced by the Red Polished Ware. It was gradually replacing vessels of the same group in different colours. This ceramic ware can be easily distinguished from other red wares on account of its excellent finish, superior fabric and distinct types. Among more than a hundred sites, where the Red Polished Ware is found in India, Amreli has yielded the largest number of the types. It continues to occur in succeeding periods upto the beginning of the 5th century A. D.[1] The rectangular copper coins bearing the Ujjain symbols belong to this period.[2]

The Kshatrapa Period

In the last quarter of the first century A. D. Saurashtra seems to have passed under the sway of the Western Kshatrapas. The rule of the Kshatrapa family of the Kshatrapa kings was of short duration. In *circa* 125 A. D. the Kshatrapa kingdom was lost to the Satavahanas of the Deccan, but the Kardamaka Kshatrapas shortly recovered northern territories including Saurashtra. The rule of these Kshatrapas and their successors continued for more than two centuries and a half. Thus, the earlier Kshatrapa period covers a pretty long period of about three centuries in the history of the peninsula.

In Phase 2 of period II (before the 3rd century A. D.) at Amreli, the people are found to have more comfortable houses with brick-paved floors unlike in the previous phase when the floor was made up of *kankar* only. The bricks were kiln-fired and measured 12 × 9 × 3 inches. The walls were yet made of mud or some perishable material.[3] A terracotta sealing with a legend in the Brahmi script of the 3rd century A. D. reading *Ajitasya* was found in a layer of this phase. Hence the brick floor must have been built before the 3rd century A. D.[4] There was considerable building activity all over the township in Phase 3. The coin of Viradaman (*circa* 234-238 A. D.) helps in assigning this phase to the 3rd century A. D.[5]

One of the best preserved structures at Amreli is a mudbrick house of Phase 4. The bricks are laid in alternate courses of headers and stretchers and their size varies from 15×10×2½ inches to 12×9×2

1. Rao S. R., *Excavation at Amreli*, p. 51 ff.
2. *Ibid.*, pp. 16,31,82.
3. *Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.
4. *Ibid.*, p. 32.
5. *Ibid.*, pp. 32, 82-83.

inches.[1] A lead coin of Swami Rudrasena II dated in the (Saka) year 18 (259-67 A. D.)[2] and potsherd inscribed with a date of 244(322-23 A.D.)[3] imply that this phase may be dated about 250-350 A. D. The lower limit of the Red Polished Ware is assigned to the end of the 4th century A.D.[4]

The other ceramic wares of period II at Amreli are the 60 coarse Red Ware, the 60 coarse Grey ware and the Black and Red Ware.[5] The coarse Red Ware was used for funerary purposes and for ritualistic offerings.[6] The coarse Grey Ware compares favourably with the coarse Red Ware in fabric and surface treatment. It is fired under reducing conditions, whereas the coarse Red Ware is fired under oxidising conditions.[7] The Black and Red Ware was used for domestic purposes. Vessels fired in the inverted firing technique are red in the exterior and black in the interior.[8] A few sherds of glazed pottery were found from the Kshatrapa levels. The technique of glazing seems to have been introduced into India by the Kushanas in the 1st century A. D.[9] A few sherds are decorated either by painting or by incising.[10]

Three glass objects have been found at Amreli. Two of them come from Phase II and one from Phase III All are opaque The loop-handle of an opaque glass vessel appears to have been imported.[11]

As for coins of the Kshatrapa Period, the pre-1945 excavations yielded coins of Rudrasena I (200-222 A. D.), Vijayasena (239-251 A. D.), Rudrasena II (255-277 A. D.), Visvasimha (278-282 A. D.), Bhartradaman (282-295 A. D.), and Swami Rudrasena III (348-381 A. D.).[12] The coins recovered from Amreli in the 1952-53 excavations include a round pot in the coin of

1. Rao S. R , *Excavations at Amreli*, pp. 32-33.
2. The digit of the unit is illegible. The year may range 181 (250) to 189 (267).
3. Shri Rao S R. has read the year 344 and ascribed it to the Vikram Era, the year accordingly corresponding to 287 A. D. (Ibid., p. 92).

   But the era prevalent in Gujarat during the Kshatrapa period was the Saka Era, in which the coins are all dated. The year 344, however, cannot be ascribed to the Saka Era, as it would prove too late stratigraphically I think the year given is 244 rather than 344. In that case it can well apply to the Saka Era and fit in stratigraphically as well.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 34.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 51
6. *Ibid.*, p. 65.
7. *Ibid.*, p. 69.
8. *Ibid.*, pp. 70-71.
9. *Ibid.*, pp. 73-74.
10. *Ibid*, p. 75.
11. *Ibid.*, pp. 80-81.
12. *A.R.A.D.B.S.*, (1935-36), p. 61; (1936-37), p. 17.

Rudrasena I, a round silver coin of Niradaman (*circa* 234-238 A. D.), two round silver-coated copper coins of Damajadasri III (251-55 A. D.), a square lead coin, a small round copper coin of Rudrasena II, a silver coin of Visvasimha and several square lead coins of Rudrasena III.[1]

A terracotta sealing, bearing the figure of a couchant animal and the legend Surasya (or Sura) was found in the pre-1945 excavations. The person is unidentifiable On Palaegraphical grounds, the sealing is assigned to the 3rd century A. D.[2] A lead seal and a terracotta sealing are found in the subsequent excavations. The sealing bears the name of Ajita, probably an official or a private individual. The characters of the legend belong to the 3rd century A. D. The lead seal bearing the name Isvara, obviously belongs to king Isvaradatta, who issued the coins. On stratigraphical and palaeographical grounds, it is assigned to the beginning of the 3rd century.[3]

A clay plaque with a bust of a bearded Greek, executed in the typical Hellenistic style, is dated the 3rd century A. D.[4] Some terracotta figures belong to the Kushana school of art.[5]

THE GUPTA PERIOD

By the beginning of the 5th century A. D., Saurashtra passed under the sway of the Gupta sovereigns of Magadha. Chandragupta II (376-*circa* 414 A. D.) *alias* Vikramaditya extended his sway over Western India, especially Malwa. He issued silver coins for this province. Silver coins of Kumaragupta I (*circa* 474-455 A. D.) *alias* Mahendraditya have been recovered in large numbers at several sites in Gujarat.[6] A hoard of some 2,000 silver coins of Kumaragupta I, bearing the *Garuda* symbol on the reverse, was unearthed in the excavations in 1936-37. The Gupta rule in Saurashtra came to an end shortly after the death of Skandagupta in 467 A. D.[7]

The most imposing building of kiln-burnt bricks unearthed at Amreli belongs to the 5th century.[8] Its central hall seems to have been used for holding prayers or religious congregations and the small room in the western extension for the residence of the monks. In pottery, the Red Polished Ware was no longer in vogue by this time.

1. RAO., S.R. *Op. cit.*, pp. 82-85.
2 *Ibid.*, pp. 89-90.
3 *Ibid.*, pp. 90-91.
4 *Ibid.*, p. 97.
5 *Ibid.*, pp. 97-98.
6. MAJMUDAR M.R. (ED.), *Chronology of Gujarat*, p. 628.
7. *Annual Report of the Archaeological Department*, Baroda State, (1936-37), p. 8.
8. RAO S. R., *Op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

Jars of coarse red fabric were recovered from the late levels of Period II and the inscribed characters engraved on them are assignable to the 5th century.[1]

Plaques of the Gupta period depict fashionable men and women as also gods and goddesses of the Brahmanical faith.[2]

THE MAITRAKA PERIOD

When the Gupta empire began to decline after the death of Skandagupta (467 A. D.), Senapati Bhatarka of the Maitraka family established his own rule at Valabhi (represented by modern Vallabhipur in Bhavnagar district) The Maitraka rulers were shortly acknowledged as *de jure* kings by their over-lords. His dynasty continued to rule over Saurashtra and a large part of the mainland Gujarat for a pretty long period of about three centuries (*circa* 470 to 788 A. D).

A terracotta cylindrical seal bearing the legend *Sri Siladitya* was found in the excavations in 1937-38 from the site where the hoard of copper coins was unearthed.[3] Obviously, it belongs to one of the Siladityas of Valabhi, most probably King Siladitya I (*circa* 595-612 A. D.).

A copper-plate grant of the next Maitraka king Kharagraha I, dated in the year 297 (of the Valabhi Era corresponding to 616 A. D), was found in a field not very far from the spot mentioned above.[4] The grant was issued from Valabhi to a Brahmin, residing at Tramadi. It records the grant of two step-wells, one situated at Anumanji and the other at Dambharapadraka in Anumanji Sthali Anumanji, the headquarters of the Sthali (a small unit of administrative divisions), is also mentioned in two other copper-plate inscriptions of the Maitraka kings.[5] Shri A. S. Gadre, editor of the Amreli Plates, proposed to identify Anumanji with Amreli, but such identification is untenable. From the location of identifiable adjoining places, Anumanji seems to have been at or near modern Arnej in the western part of the Kodinar taluka.[6] However, the

1 RAO S R., *Excavations at Amreli*, p. 93
2. *Ibid*., pp 96-97
3 *Annual Report of the Archaeological Department*, Baroda State, (1937-38,) p. 16.
4. GADRE A S., *Important Inscriptions from the Baroda State*, p 7
5. Vala Plates of Dhruvasena I, dated 534 A D (*Indian Antiquary*, Vol IV, p 105) and Vala Plate of Guhasena, dated 564 A D (*Epigraphia Indica*, Vol, XIII, p 339)
6 Dabhor near Veraval-Patan fits in philologically, but it is more than 25 miles (40 kilometres) far from Arnek representing Anumanji, the headquarter of the Sthali.

Presumably the site represents Tramadi, the place of residence of the recipient of the grant, just as Vala (Vallabhipur) represents Valabhi where the Buddhist *vihara* (monastery) receiving the other two grants was situated.

Or Tramadi is represented by Taravda 10 miles (16 km) south-west of Amreli In that case the Plates must have been shifted to Amreli subsequently.

fact that the plates of Kharagraha I were found in the *Wadi* in the northern part of *Gohilwad Timbo* implies some definite association of the plates with the site near Amreli. Anyhow the name *Amreli* is not related to *Anumanji*. It obviously represents *Amravalli*, synonymously mentioned as Girvanavalli in the local inscription dated V. S. 1873 (1817 A. D.)[1]

Shri S. R. Rao traces the earliest epigraphic reference in regard to Amreli to the Sorath copper-plate grant of Dharasena II, (Valabhi) year 252 (571 A. D.), on assuming that Ambrilika mentioned therein is represented by Amreli.[2]

But Jhari Sthali mentioned in the Jhar Plates of Dharasena II dated 571 A. D. was definitely situated round about Jhar, in the Dhari taluka, the findspot of the plates. Jhar obviously represents Jhari, the headquarters of Jhari Sthali.

Two copper-plate grants of the Maitraka kings were found at Mota Machiala in Amreli taluka,[3] of which one was issued by King Dhruvasena I in the (Valabhi) year 206 (525 A. D.). It refers to the village Suvarnakiya in Sinabarataka Sthali. Suvarnakiya is identified with Sonariya in the south of the Amreli taluka.[4] Sinabarataka is probably represented by Shemardi in the adjoining Dhari taluka. The other grant was issued by king Dharasena II in the (Valabhi) year 252 (571 A. D.). It refers to the villages Bhattivata, Savinipadraka, Bahudhanaka and Bhabbalapataka. None of the places can be identified satisfactorily.

1. In the Nageshwar Mahadev Temple (*New Indian Antiquary*, Vol. III, p. 404.

2. *Excavations at Amreli*, p 8. This view is obviously based on a suggestion made in '*Ancient History of Saurashtra*' by Miss K. J. Virji.

Jhar Plates of Dharasena II, dated in the same year refers to a Vaha (road) leading to Amrilika (not *Ambrilika*) as forming the eastern boundary of the piece of land situated to the north-west of Bilvakhabha-sthali and given in the grant to the Brahmana. As Bilvakhabha is identified with Bilkha near Junagadh, Amrilika is not identifiable with Amreli which is too far from Bilkha. Amrilika may here either stand for a mango-grove in its vicinity or may represent the village Ambaliya situated in the adjoining Visavadar taluka of Junagadh district.

Velapadraka in Jhari Sthali seems to have lost its name in course of time, but it lay near modern Ambardi, as Dahida to its east and Bharad to its west probably represent Dadhikupaka and Bhramarakulya respectively, mentioned in relation to Velapadraka. Both the places are situated in Dhari taluka near Jhar.

3. Gadre A. S., *Two Valabhi Grants from Mota Machiala*, *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXXI, pp. 299-304.

4. Shastri H. G., *Maitraka-kalin Gujarat*, Appendix V, p. 33.

A copper-plate grant issued by the Maitraka King Dhruvasena II in the (Valabhi) year 323 (642 A. D.) was discovered at Malila in Amreli taluka and is now preserved at Shri Girdharbhai Museum, Amreli.[1] It records a grant of land to the north of the village Machehhenika which is probably represented by Machiala, the findspot of the two sets of copper-plates mentioned above. In that case, Saranapadraka to the north of Machehhenika was situated at or near Shedubhar which lies to the north of Mota Machiala. Uttinnaijja, the headquarters of Uttinnaijja Sthali in which the land was situated, is not identifiable at present.

Thus these copper-plate grants afford direct evidence of the Maitraka rule over this district in the sixth and seventh centuries A. D. The power of the Maitraka dynasty came to an end in V. S. 845 (788 A. D.) when Valabhi fell a prey to a catastrophic attack from the Arabs of Sindh.[2]

No structural remains of this period have come forth in the excavations at Amreli.

POST-MAITRAKA PERIOD EXCAVATIONS AT AMRELI

After the fall of the Maitraka kingdom of Valabhi, a large part of mainland Gujarat was under the sway of the Rashtrakutas, while the Chavdas ruled over the Sarasvati region in North Gujarat. In Saurashtra, a Chapa family ruled at Wadhwan (Surendranagar district), a Chalukya family near about Una (Junagadh district) and a Saindhava dynasty at Ghumli (Jamnagar district). The places mentioned in Una Plates of the Chalukya kings defy identification. However, it is probable that a large area covered by modern Amreli district was under the sway of this royal family.

The excavated finds from Amreli contain no data for tracing its history posterior to the 7th centuary A. D., upto the rest of the Chalukyas.

THE SOLANKI PERIOD

The subsequent period in the history of Gujarat is the Chaulukyan or Solanki period, which ranges from 942 A. D. to 1304 A. D. Sorath was under the sway of the Chudasama dynasty by this time. But it is not known who ruled over this district during this period. A stone-inscription found at

1. SHASTRI H. G., 'Maitraka Copper-plate Inscription of King Dhruvasena IV', *Journal of Oriental Institute*, Baroda, Vol. X, pp. 123-128; D. C. SIRCAR and J. SUNDARAM, *Amreli Museum Plates of Dhruvasena II Baladitya, year 323*, *Epigraphia Indica*, Vol. XXXV, pp. 281-286.

2. SHASTRI H. G., *Maitraka-Kalin Gujarat*, pp. 155-160.

Dudana near Kodinar and dated V. S. 1258 (1201 A. D.)[1] refers to king Ksemasimha and his provincial governor, but the king is not identified nor his family known.

A stone-inscription at Diu, dated V. S. 1393 (1336 A. D.)[2] alludes to the defeat of the lord of Kotingara (Kodinar). But nothing is known of the king and his family.

As for the region round about Amreli, it seems to have probably passed under the sway of Gohils, who established their power at Umrala, Arthila and Gariadhar in Gohilwad by the end of the 13th Century. The reference to Dungarasimha in the fragmentary inscription at Amreli corroborates this assumption as Dungarasimha is identifiable with the Gohil king Dungarsi of Umrala. In fact, it is very difficult to reconstruct any coherent account of the history of this district for several centuries after the fall of the Vallabhi Kingdom.

The Mediaeval Period

The mediaeval period in Gujarat covered broadly the period from 1299 to 1806. During this period, Gujarat witnessed many political upheavals. In 1299 commenced the Turkish invasions over Gujarat. The real consolidation of the Muslim rule in Gujarat, however, began in the middle of the 15th Century during the regime of Sultan Ahmad Shah. So far, the centre of political gravity was in Delhi and, therefore, it was not possible to effectively rule over far-flunged and outlying areas in Gujarat. Only after the establishment of the Sultanate in Gujarat, effective control could be established by the Muslims in Gujarat.

In the early period, the Amreli district was affected by the Turkish invasions. It also experienced absolutism and bureaucracy of the Tughuluqs. It had a very hard time under the Sultans of Gujarat also. So far as the period of Sultnate of Gujarat was concerned, campaigns of Ahmad Shah, Mahmud Begada and Bahadur Shah in Saurashtra stood out prominently. These campaigns were primarily directed against the Somnath temple and, therefore the entire southern coastal area of the Amreli district was affected. The disintegration of the Mughal power, the *mulkgiri* expeditions and oppressions of the people by the Marathas in the peninsula hastened the end of the mediaeval period, and brought Col. Walker on the political stage of Kathiawar.

The Muslim Power in Peninsula

Generally speaking, the Muslim rule in Gujarat lasted for nearly more than four and half centuries, *i. e.*, from the conquest of the Gujarat province

1. *New Indian Antiquary*, Vol. I, p. 686.
2. *Ibid*, p. 734.

by Sultan Ala-ud-din Khalji of Delhi in 1297 to the final defeat of the Mughal Viceroy Momin Khan at the hands of the Marathas in 1758. During this period, the whole of Gujarat was ruled by the Sultans of Delhi through their agents or Governors from 1297 to 1403, then by the Sultans of Gujarat from 1403 to 1573 and lastly by the Mughal Emperors through their Governors and Viceroys, from 1573 to 1758. However, the peninsular Gujarat did not bear the name of Kathiawar under the Muslim rule, but it was considered as a part of the province of Gujarat. In the early period of the Muslim rule, the peninsula together with a small portion of the adjoining mainland was known as Sorath and by the end of the sixteenth century the largest part of the whole of the peninsula, came to be known as Sorath.

The first Turkish invaders of Gujarat led by Ulugh Khan, the General of Ala-ul-din, entered Gujarat in 1297. Ulugh Khan was joined by Nusrat Khan, another prominent general and their combined army wrested Anhilwad Patan, the capital of the Waghela Kingdom, from king Karnadeva the last of Vaghela-Solanki line. The invaders then directed their attention to Somnath Patan, *i. e.*, south-western strip of the peninsula to repeat the performance which had given Mahmud of Ghazna, an enviable position and to claim for themselves the credit of breaking the famous idol of Somnath.[1] Every new conqueror ceremonially attacked it and ravaged it. The temple was ably defended by two Vaja warriors, Malasuta and Padamla, who laid down their lives in defence of the temple. In order to reach Somnath Patan, the army of Ala-ud-din's lieutenant might have crossed the territories of this district as the coastal areas of the district are linked with those of the district of Junagadh. However, Gujarat was incorporated in the Sultanate of Delhi in 1304.[2] The Turks were successful in breaking down the apex of the Rajput power—structure but not its lower echelons The Rajputs were fragmented but not shattered. Important and powerful Rajput strongholds remained hostile and unsubdued and the whole of Saurashtra remained virtually unaffected.[3] The first Governor of Gujarat was Alp Khan whose rule lasted till 1316, when he was recalled at the instigation of

1. *Khaza' in-u'l-Futuh* also called *Tarikh-i-'Alai* by Amir Khusrau : edited by S. Mu' in u'l-Haqq, Muslim University, Aligarh, 1927. Translated by Prof. M. Habib as *The Campaigns of Ala-u'd-din Khalji, Bombay*, 1931 and *Tarikh-I Firuz Shahi* by Zia-U. d-din Barni edited by Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan, Calcutta *Bibliotheca Indica* 1862, excerpts translated in Elliot and Dowson, *History of India*, Vol. III.
2. With the eclipse of Waghela power by the end of thirteenth century, the whole of Gujarat including Sorath naturally came under the Muslim rule and was ruled by the Governors from Anhilwad Patan. The new Sorath or the territories of the Chudasama Rajputs remained independent and unconquered. The Muslim Governor from Anhilwad Patan could do very little to maintain his control over the distant territories.
3. MISRA S. C., *The Rise of Muslim Power in Gujarat*, Bombay, (1963), p. 66.

Malik Kafur and assassinated by the orders of Ala-ud-din Khalji. The departure of Alp Khan, however, created a sense of alarm in Gujarat. The Muslim power in the peninsula shook to its foundations and an atmosphere of internal feuds and internecine warfare prevailed. This region remained neglected till the last of the great Sultans, Muhammad bin Tughuluq invaded it. Ra Khengar IV, the most powerful ruler of Junagadh of the time, made a vigorous attack on the Muslim viceroy who had by then occupied the southern part of the peninsula. From him, he recovered Prabhash Patan and Somnath and restored them to Raja Vishaldev. The Somnath temple was rescued from the decay into which it had fallen during the period of Muhammadan occupation and was restored to its former glory. Ra Khengar who harboured a fugitive, Malik Taghi a rebel in Gujarat and whom Sultan Muhammad Tughuluq was bent on punishing, was chased from place to place. During Muhammad Tughuluq's three years stay (1347-50) in Gujarat, which he spent mostly in Saurashtra, he performed twofold task : firstly he attempted to bring Rajput chiefs under his sway and continued the work which was begun by Alp Khan : and secondly, he brought under his control fresh areas, which had acknowledged his authority, directly or indirectly. Sultan Muhammad had directed his attention towards Saurashtra which no Sultan had done previously. He had a strong desire to compensate for his disasters in the Deccan by conquering the peninsula of Saurashtra. Apart from Ra Khengar of Junagadh, another chieftain of the peninsula who had stoutly opposed Sultan Muhammad, was Mokhraji Gohil of Piram. Mokhraji put up strong resistence and fought with the Sultan but was defeated and killed. The victories of Sultan were followed by the establishment of Muslim control over the Gohilwad coastline of Saurashtra as far as Una-Delvada.[1]

Sultan Muhammad bin Tughuluq was succeeded by Sultan Firoz Shah, who about 1363 invaded Gujarat and Saurashtra and restored Muhammadan supremacy in Sorath, which had suffered severely after the departure of Sultan Muhammad. Ra Khengar by this time had already re-established his lost authority and for the remaining period he remained independent.[2] The Sultan of Delhi appointed Zafar Khan to the Viceroyalty in 1363. During the period of this Emperor an army under Iz-ud-din and Saiyad Sikandar was sent against the Gohil Raval of Mangrol and after some warfare they conquered his entire principality and firmly established the faith of Islam.

Muhammadan rule was now acknowledged in the coastal belt between Madhavpur and Delvada and almost as far as Jafrabad, which was then not founded.

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1. Campbell J. M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, (1884), p. 285.
2. *Ibid*, p. 497. *Kathiawar Gazetteer* states that Ra Khengar consolidated his hold on southern coast-line of Saurashtra and put down piracy and is said to have conquered eighteen islands on the coast.

Jafrabad was an important town on the southern coast of the peninsula. Zafar Khan who was appointed as Governor in 1363, was one of the most distinguished nobles at Delhi Court. He was also of royal descent. He is said to have accompanied the Emperor in a campaign against Sindh and was thereafter left in charge of Gujarat. No details regarding his administration have been recorded. It is said that he died in 1371-72 and his eldest son, Darya Khan who received the title on Zafar Khan[1] assumed his father's position and carried on the administration. In 1398, Zafar Khan bin Wajih-ul-Mulk afterwards, Sultan Muzaffar was appointed as Governor of Gujarat. In 1398, the local chieftains were growing restless in the coastal areas of the peninsula. The Somnath temple which was twice destroyed, had risen again phoenix like in fresh glory. Zafar khan at once marched there and after severe fighting conquered all opposition and demolished the temple for the third time. Zafar Khan firmly established the Muhammadan power and appointed one Malik Badar Banjhal as his deputy at Mangrol. The Sorath Governor's seat at this time was at Somnath-Patan. Zafar Khan acknowledged the overlordship of Sultans of Delhi till 1407 when he ascended the throne as Sultan Muzaffar Shah. It may be noted that Muzaffar Shah can be credited with having given the new dynasty a good start. He, however, was killed at the hands of Ahmad Shah, his grandson in 1410. Soon Ahmad Shah the founder of Ahmedabad ascended the throne and began his illustrious career. He defeated the Chudasama chieftain and compelled him to become his tributary.

However, Sultan Ahmad Shah could not secure the whole peninsula for, "It (campaign) merely guarded against immediate trouble from that direction by warning the turbulent elements there of immediate retaliation. It was more an assertion of strength than an attempt at conquest."[2] Ahmad Shah died in 1441. In the subsequent period the Muslim rule extended from near Madhavpur to the neigthbourhood of Jafrabad in the peninsula.

The tributes were exacted regularly from the Jhala and Gohil chieftains who acknowledged nominal allegiance to the Sultan. Sultan Mahmud Begada who reigned from 1458 to 1511 added glory and lustre to the kingdom of Gujarat. He was the best of all the Gujarat Sultans, including

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1. It may be pointed out that the "fourteenth century saw the office of Governor of Gujarat held by no less than three nobles each of whom had the title of Zafar Khan. The first was Malik Dinar, who served under Sultan Ala-ud-din's son Qutb-ud-din Mubarak being brother-in-law of the latter; the next was Zafar Khan of Sonargon mentioned above; and the last was Zafar Khan, son of Wajih-ul Mulk who was appointed Governor of Gujarat in 1391 under the successor of Sultan Firoz with the title of Muzaffar Khan and who founded the illustrious dynasty of the independent Sultans of Gujarat"; COMMISSARIAT M. S., *History of Gujarat*, Madras, (1938), pp. 45-46.

2. MISRA S. C., *The Rise of Muslim Power in Gujarat*, Bombay, (1962), p. 175.

all who preceded and all who succeeded him.1 He appears to have realised very early the necessity of crushing the Chudasma Ra of Junagadh and curbing the raids of other chieftains of new Sorath. Accordingly Sultan Mahmud's war with Junagadh lasted for four years from 1467 to 1470 and involved at least three campaigns. The final campaign was led by Sultan Mahmud himself and the Ra was offered the crucial choice of Islam or war. In 1472, the Ra surrendered the fortress and became a convert to Islam and accompanied the Sultan to Ahmedabad. During the period of Sultan Begada, Junagadh (renamed then as Mustafabad) rose to the dignity of a mint town of the Gujarat Sultanate and from this time onwards it became the headquarters of the permanent officer who was now appointed to administer Sorath as a Crown possession and to receive the tribute from the petty chiefs of the peninsula.

In 1476 Sultan Mahmud also attacked Amreli, Kundla and other parganas which were under the control of the Sarvaiya Rajputs. The Sultan snatched away their giras and drove them out of their native place. The giras of Amreli belonged to two Sarvaiya brothers, namely Jesoji and Vejoji. As the giras was very dear to them, these brothers went into outlawry against the Sultan. They constantly harassed the officers of Sultan. They were so daring in their adventures that once, they stealthily went into the harem of Sultan at Uperkot (Junagadh) to kill him. However, finding the Sultan's Begum inadequately dressed, one brother returned. On being questioned by his brother, he related the fact by saying that 'Sister is not properly dressed.' The Begum who was a daughter of Rajput, knew that this was the weak spot in the Rajput character. She therefore, entreated for the safety of her married life. The two brothers acceded to her wish and retired from there. Thereafter, again near Sarkhej, they captured another Begum of the Sultan. But she was also allowed to go after calling her as their sister. Through the good offices of these Begums, the giras of these brothers was restored to them by the Sultan. Jesoji and Vejoji, thereafter gave in marriage their sister to Sultan. It is said that Jesoji built a town called Jesar and Vejoji a town bearing the name of 'Vejalku'. These villages were received by Bhim *alias* Sarva, the son of Ra Navghan II in 1498. From his name, the village came to be known as Sarva and hence these two brothers came to be known as Sarvaiyas.

After subduing the Thakors of Amreli and Kundla, Mahmud attacked Dwarka and destroyed its temple in 1473. He also crushed the Jhalas in 1486. Junagadh was fixed as the chief seat of Government and the *thanas* were established at many places. Mahmud Begada died in 1511. Among all his successors Bahadur Shah's brief but brilliant reign of a decade marks the last stage of Sultanate of Gujarat. He crushed the revolt of Amir Ishaq, son of Malik Ayaz in Kathiawar. On his return journey, he passed through

1. Bayley, Sir Edward Clive; *History of Gujarat*, Bombay, (1886), p.161.

Kodinar, an important town in the district at present. The Sultan lost his life at Diu in 1537 as it is said and appears very likely, owing to the treachery of the Portuguese. With the death of Bahadur Shah, the rulers of Junagadh and Sorath, *viz.*, Tatar Khan Ghori and his son, Amin Khan, became virtually independent of the centre and enjoyed that position till the end of the Sultanate.

The period of Sultans saw a remarkable transformation in many spheres. In Kathiawar, it marked the advent of the Jadejas and the Kathis. It is significant that social and political configurations of the peninsula took shape in this period. Trade and Commerce also developed. The port of Mangrol, Veraval, Diu, Gogo and Cambay came into prominence. The authority of the Sultans by and large, remained limited to the coastal areas (including areas of Amreli district) and that too south and south-west coasts of the peninsula. Some sporadic attemps were, however, made to control the north coast.

The campaigns of Sultans in Gujarat had no direct bearing on Amreli. What concerned directly to this district, was their invasion of the peninsula. Muzaffar Shah, the last of the Sultans of Gujarat, had come to the peninsula where he had gained Jadeja's support. After the death of Sultan Bahadur Shah, the succeeding Sultans could never regain their authority within the peninsula. During their reign the administration was weak and there was confusion throughout the kingdom. Taking advantage of this situation Akbar, the great Mughal emperor conquered Gujarat and annexed it to his empire in 1572 In 1591, the fugitive ex-Sultan Muzaffar Shah III of Gujarat secured the help of Jam Satrasalji *alias* Sataji of Nawanagar, Daulatkhan Ghori of Junagadh, Loma Khuman of Kherdi and Raizada Jagiruar Khengar and challenged the Mughal authority. In 1591 the most famous and decisive battle was fought at Bhuchar Mori near Dhrol between the Mughal Governor and the allies of Muzaffar Shah. Though both sides suffered heavily, the battle ended in the defeat of the allies and Muzaffar Shah. The most significant result of this battle was the incorporation of Junagadh in the Mughal territories. Henceforth, Junagadh town became the seat of an Imperial *Foujdar*. Tribute was exacted from the Jam and all the Zamindars of Sorath, and together with Sorath, the entire coast line was annexed to the imperial domain. But the dominions of the Jam remained independent though a tributary kingdom, including the portion of the coast line extending from Jodiya to Salaya. From this date, Sorath became a *Khalsah Sarkar* or crown domain and Raizada Jagirdar Khengar was dismissed to his estate of Sil-Bagasara, Keshod and Chorvad where he subsequently died in 1608. That the Mughal rule was also extended to Amreli is evident from the fact that in *Ain-i-Akbari* Amreli is mentioned as constituting a *Mahal* in Akbar's time.[1]

1. DESAI G. H., AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, *Administration*, Bombay, (1923), p. 54.

KATHIS

The Kathis form one of the most distinctive and interesting races in the Saurashtra peninsula. Like many Rajput tribes, they entered into Kathiawar. The home place and the time of their immigration in Saurashtra are yet to be decided finally. However, according to Col. Walker they first settled in the desert between Sindh and Kutch. It is said that they first entered Kathiawar about the year 1400 in company with a band of Charans due to famine condition. A party of them under the leadership of Umro Patkar, went to Dhank, then ruled by a Vala Rajput. Umro had a beautiful daughter named Umrabai with whom the Dhank chieftain, Dhan Vala, fell in love. When Dhan asked for her hand Umro agreed on condition that they should eat together. To this Dhan submitted, and his brethern, considering him degraded, drove him out. He became the leader of the Kathis, and by Umrabai, had three sons, Vala, Khuman, and Khachar, whose descendants bear their names and are called *Shakhayats* while the descendants of the original Kathis are called *Avartias* or inferior. The three sons of Vala namely Khuman, Khachar and Harsur Vala, settled themselves at Chotila, Mithiala, and Jetpur. For many generations, the Kathis thought more of making their living by plunder than by the acquisition of territory. They despised husbandry; all they cared for was a fastness to which they could retreat when hard pressed, and in which they could keep their spoil. Hence, inspite of the fact that their name was a terror to the country, they were not large landowners during the first 150 years of their residence in Kathiawar. Only when the Muhammadan power began to show signs of breaking up, they became land conscious. Then they spread themselves through the heart of the peninsula, taking Jasdan and other districts from the Jadejas and Alag Dhanani from the Junagadh chief. They infiltrated into the neighbourhood of Amreli, and settled at Kundla and other places on the borders of Babariavad. The Sarvaiyas ceded Chital to them, and many other Rajputs followed suit.

CHITAL[1]

Chital originally belonged to the Sarvaiya Rajputs, from whom the Selarka Kathis of Mendarda in Junagadh acquired it in 1735. The story of acquisition of Chital, once an important principality of the Kathis State, now forming part of the Amreli district, is interesting. A wealthy merchant of Amreli annoyed by the exactions and oppressions of the officers of the Nawab of Junagadh sought refuge at Chital. He offered the Kathis half of whatever portion of his property they could recover for him. The Kathis made a raid on Amreli, and recovered the merchant's property, and then resolved to put him to death and keep it all for themselves. They were dissuaded from such action by one of their women, and not only gave the

1. CAMPBELL J. M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, (1884).

merchant back all his goods, but refused to take the share which he had promised them. They had their reward, for not only did the merchant settled at Chital, but the others, who were also attracted by the report of such generosity, settled there also. The neighbouring proprietors put themselves under the protection of the Kathis.

The Kathis became so formidable that in 1760, the Nawab of Junagadh ceded to them the districts of Jetpur, Mendarda and Bilkha as they were mainly inhabited by the turbulent Khant Kolis and other lawless tribes. The Kathi principality of Chital, was engaged in a great battle with king Wakhatsinhji of Bhavnagar. In 1792-93 it was planned to have a joint front of all the Kathis against Wakhatsinhji. It was to consist of different Kathi rulers like the Khumans of Kundla, Vira Wala of Jetpur, Kumbha Wala of Chital, Wajsur Khachar of Jasdan, the Banis of Paliyad, the Ramanias of Chotila, Gadakas of Gadhada and Botad and even outlaw Khasias of the Gir forest. Not all but a majority responded and a formidable array was assembled at Chital. King Wakhatsinhji also could not long remain in ignorance of the formidable Kathis assembling against him. He also summoned his kinsmen, the collateral clans, like the Dewani, Vachani, Govindani and Goghari, and other Gohils of Vala and Lathi. Others also joined him, among them the Gowalia Kathis were notable. Deciding to strike first, Wakhatsinhji marched with his force and laid siege to the Kathi stronghold and headquarters of Chital.

This sharp and chellenging move was the weakest spot in the Kathi strategy. Col. Watson observes "the Kathi host, who at the best of times were better fitted for mounted raids than fighting pitched battles or defending walled towns." Wakhatsinhji, avoiding pitched battles, used his excellent artillery to good effect against Chital with the result that the Kathi confederacy disintegrated, leaving the town with only a handful of defenders. However, Wakhatsinhji restored Chital to its former masters (Kathis) sometime afterwards.

The Kathis also extended their hold over Thana-Devli, Vadia, Bagasara and Khijadia which now form part of this district. The State of Thana-Devli was seperated from the main Taluka of Jetpur in about 1890. It was ruled by a Vala branch of Kathi clan. The State followed the usual Kathi rule of equal division till the reign of Chief Darbar Shri Laxman Vala, who, realizing the disadvantages of the system of equal division, moved Government to apply the rule of primogeniture to his State, and saved the State from further break-up. The State of Vadia once an integral part of the Jetpur taluka was ruled

by the Virani branch of Vala division of the Kathi clan. The State of Bagasara represented the senior branch which descended from Harsur Vala, the eldest son of Samat Vala. Mancha Wala, who was the original founder of the house of Bagasara, had come from Devgam and Devalia and drove away the Babarias of Bagasara and established his kingdom in 1525. Desa Vala, the fifth in descent from Mancha Wala, rendered help to Jam Tamachi of Nawanagar State in the struggle with the Nawab of Junagadh in 1708. In recognition of this service, a title of "Kathio Jam" was conferred on him by the Jam Saheb and to mark his position, Danko, Nishan and Miano (palanquin) were presented to him. The State of Bagasara slowly and gradually was fragmented as the rule of primogeniture was not followed by Kathis.

Khijadia

Khijadia was also a small Kathi estate and was ruled by the Jaitani branch of the Wala Kathis.

The Gohils

Rajula, Liliya and Lathi which now form part of this district were once ruled by the Gohils. The Gohils of Khergadh on the river Luni in Marwar, entered Saurashtra under the leadership of Sejakji about 1260 and with the goodwill of the ruler of Junagadh, gained footing. In due course, Sejakji wrested many villages from the enemies of the ruler of Junagadh and carved out his own small kingdom, setting up Sejakpur from his own name as the capital. Sejakji was succeeded by his son Ranoji who expanded the Gohil power to a greater extent.

Mamaiyo Dhankhdo of Rajula, the brother of Bhola Dhankhdo from whom Wakhatsinhji had seized Rajula in 1784, was chafing under his control and sought Junagadh's help promising the Nawab with his share in the village, once the Bhavnagar troops had been driven out. At first, the Nawab sent a small force which was successsfully resisted by the Behlim garrison but they were unable to withstand the 2,000 strong force which followed it.

In turn, Wakhatsinhji sent his bhayat Kayabhai to recover the place which he did with the help of Antaji Nagar of Mahuva and an additional levy from that place.

This reverse was a serious blow to the Nawab's prestige and Hamid Khan collected a large army to avenge it. He was also joined by the Kathis, Khachars, Khumans and Walas. The joint force marched on

Kundla and seized it after a sharp engagement in which both Antaji and Kayaji were killed and Rajula too fell to the invaders.

With these successes and persuaded by his Kathi allies, Hamid Khan determined to march on Bhavnagar. At Waral, Wakhatsinhji checked him and here an indecisive conflict took place. However, the Nawab seemed to have lost his enthusiasm to march to Bhavnagar and withdrawing towards Lathi, he encamped at Jarakhia. Wakhatsinhji following him camped at Dhasa. Next day, the armies engaged and an indecisive battle took place at the end of which both sides were happy to entertain and accepted the peace proposal broached by Jiaji Jethwa, a kinsman of the Rana of Porbandar, who had married Wakhatsinhji's sister. The terms, as they finally emerged, were that the Nawab was to resign all claims to Kundla, Rajula, Liliya and other lesser places and, in return, was to receive the *zor-talabi* tribute from Bhavnagar. On the conclusion of the peace, Hamid Khan retreated to Dhandhalpur in the Panchal, while Wakhatsinhji returned to Bhavnagar (1796) From now onwards, these areas were ruled by successive rulers of Bhavnagar State During the time of Takhtasinhji (1869-1896) the Port Albert Victor which is at present in this district was constructed.

The State of Bhavnagar on the whole maintained throughout the pre-Independence period, its tradition of good Government, progressive economic and agrarian measures and an enlightened and liberal educational policy. Measures like these made it not only the most progressive State in the peninsula but also one of the best governed Indian States in the whole of the country. Its measures like the debt redemption scheme, gram panchayats and co-operation attracted attention from other parts of India.

LATHI

As shown previously the house of Lathi sprang from Sarangji, the son of Ranoji. Sarangji and his descendants ruled at Arthila for four generations when Ra Mandalik of Junagadh conquered and sacked Arthila and slew Dudoji, the then ruling chieftain. The Gohils of Arthila then withdrew to Lathi which they held till the merger of the State in 1948. When Zafar Khan, the last Governor of the Sultanate of Delhi, (1394-1403) sacked the Somnath temple, Hamirji Gohil, the younger brother of Dudoji, sacrificed himself in defence of the scared shrine. The event is recorded in a memorial stone erected near the temple. Poet 'Kalapi' composed an epic on the heroic ancestor of his.

When the Lathi chieftain was unable to pay his tribute to the Gaekwad and was also much harassed by the chiefs of Bhavnagar and Palitana, he gave a daughter in marriage to Damaji Gaekwad along with the taluka of Chhabhadia[1] in dowry. After this alliance the Gaekwad protected Lathi and the tribute was reduced to the token tribute of a horse. Later on Rs. 500 were fixed in lieu of one horse.

In the twenty-second generation from Sarangji flourished Lakhaji. He suppressed the Kathis who harassed the people of the region around Lathi.[2] Lakhaji was succeeded by his elder son, Dajiraj *alias* Amarasinh, but he expired after a short time. He left only a daughter who was married to the renowned chief Dajiraj of Wadhwan. From Amarasinh, the throne of Lathi passed on to his younger brother Takhtasinhji. He had three sons, *viz.*, Bhavsinhji, Sursinhaji and Vijaysinhaji. Bhavsinhji died a premature death while he was studying in the Rajkumar College at Rajkot,. Hence Sursinhaji (Kalapi) became the heir-apparent at the age of 12. The Agency put the State under management. The prince was married to princess Rajba of Roha (Kutch) as well as to princess Anandiba of Kotda Sangani in Saurashtra. He left the College in 1891 and was deputed on a tour of India. During the tour he visited many places from Rawalpindi and Srinagar in the north to Rameshwaram in the south. In 1895, Sursinhaji assumed the reins of Lathi. He was endowed with a poetic temperament. His mind was ardently devoted to the peaceful life. Sursinhaji composed and published his poems under the pseudonym 'Kalapi' (Peacock). Among them, the book '*Kalapi-no-Kekarav*' is extremely popular. *Hamirji Gohel, Mala and Mudrika* are his other important works. His life was cut off by a premature demise at the age of 26 in 1900. He was succeeded by his son Pratapsinhji, who did not enjoy a long reign. His son and successor Prahladsinhaji, who succeeded to the gadi in 1918, was a man of literary bent of mind and contributed to Gujarati literature under the pseudonym 'Rajhamsa'. During his reign, the principality along with other princely States in the peninsula, was merged into the Union of States of Saurashtra and became a part of Gohilwad district In reorganisation of the districts of Saurashtra, it was transferred to Amreli district.

JAFRABAD

At the place of modern Jafrabad, Madasar or Madafari village flourished. Due to its strategic position on the sea-coast, the Chavda rulers

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1 It was subsequently named after Damaji, Damnagar.

2. Vide the Gujarati saying '*Chare Kor Kathi, ne vachche Lakham Lathi*' (The Kathi all around, Lathi of Lakha in the midst).

kept their headquarters at this place. It is not known as to when and how they were displaced by the invaders. The foreigners were always on the look-out for strategic points on the sea-coast of the peninsula.

The Portuguese who were making strenuous efforts to enter Diu and bring it under their control, induced Sultan Muzaffar of Gujarat to make defensive preparations at this place. He visualised the ensuing danger and built a strong fort around the town and garrisoned it with the Rajputs and named it Muzaffarabad. Later on it came to be known as Jafrabad. The Sultans of Gujarat kept their navy here to counteract the movements of the Portuguese. They also employed Abyssinian negroes as naval officers. The Portuguese attempt in 1521 to capture Muzaffarabad and to build a fort there, was foiled by their own Muslim slaves. Suleman Pasha from Turkey anchored at this port in 1538 Jafrabad lost its importance when the Portuguese gained control over Diu. The rulers of Gujarat as well as of Delhi also neglected this important port.

In the beginning of the 18th century, when the Mughal power was much relaxed in Saurashtra and the power of the Fouzdar of Sorath was nominal, Jafrabad like several other small holdings became independent under its Thanadars.

Jafrabad came to be acquired by Janjira State in 1731 When Turk Patil and certain other landowners of Jafrabad comitted a piracy near Surat. Sidi Hilal of the Janjira State who was then protecting the shipping of Surat, attacked them, destroyed their ships and demanded a heavy fine The Thanadars unable to pay the fine sold Jafrabad to Sidi Hilal who went there and obtained the village by a written agreement. In 1749, some dispute arose at Jafrabad, and through the intervention at the English who were anxious to keep the Sidi as an allay and to compensate him for the loss of Surat Castle, it was decided to appoint Sidi Hilal as Manager or Fouzdar of Jafrabad State. Afterwards owing to the general disorder and anarchy in the peninsula Sidi Hilal sold Jafrabad to the ruling chief of the Janjira. Janjira chieftain paid Sidi Hilal's debts which amounted to Rs. 7,000. He was sent as the head of the garrison to re-occupy the place in his name. Thereafter, Sidi Hilal resided at Jafrabad as Governor on behalf of Janjira State During this time, Jafrabad holding consisted merely of the town and its immediate neighbourhood. However, successive Governors enlarged the area by inducing neighbouring Girassias to come under their protection. The State consisted of 12 villages including Jafrabad and a group of Shial Bet Islands comprising Shial Bet, Savai Bet and Bhesla Island.

Kathiawad in the 18th Century[1]

At the time of the advent of the Marathas into the Saurashtra peninsula in the 18th century, the greater part of the population consisted of two classes, chiefs and cultivators called *bhumias* and *ryots*. The power of a chief ranged from the headship of a single village to absolute jurisdiction over several villages. The ryots were usually tenants long resident in the peninsula. The chiefs were mostly foreigners, invaders from the north and north-east; Muhammadan adventures from the Court of Ahmedabad, Kathis animated by the love of plunder and cattle-lifting; and Mianas and Vaghelas who had settled on the coast on account of the facilities it afforded for piracy. A powerful leader with a sufficient band of followers oppressed his weaker neighbours until they placed themselves under his protection and came to terms so that both could escape and could take their chances of sharing in the plunder of others. It frequently happened in the growth of one of the States that the *bhayad*, the relations of the chief, were influential enough to assume, in their turn, a partial independence. The basis of these States being itself so unstable, their relations with each other were conducted on no principle but on the basis that might was right. General distrust prevailed throughout. Each chief well knew that his neighbours had won their position, as he had won his own, by the gradual absorption of the weaker; and that they were ready enough, whenever opportunity offered, to subject his dominion to the same process. The administration of his territory consisted merely in levying, within certain limits sanctioned by long usage, as much revenue as would suffice to maintain himself and his forces in their position with regard to the surrounding States. When a foreign enemy appeared the local chiefs hardly united for resistance It was a point of honour not to yield except to a superior force.

The Gaekwads in Amreli Prant

The course of politics in the first quarter of the 18th century had brought the Saurashtra peninsula within the field of operation of both the Muslims as well as the Marathas. It was the Marathas who gave the region its name of Kathiawar by virtue of its being the land of the Kathis. In latter half of the 18th century, three remarkable men made their mark in the peninsula, *viz*., Amarji Kunverji Diwan of Junagadh, Meraman Khawas of Nawanagar and Wakhatsinhji Gohil of Bhavnagar. The history of this period largely revolves round these persons in Kathiawar. These persons became formidable as they combined the powers of fighting with those of organisation and statecraft. Amraji Kunverji, the Diwan of Junagadh made Junagadh one of the most powerful and dreaded

1. Desai G H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, Bombay, (1923), p. 434.

States in Saurashtra. Meraman Khawas by his shrewdness made himself the virtual ruler of Nawanagar till his death in 1800. Wakhatsinhji Gohil of Bhavnagar, who came to the throne of Bhavnagar in 1772 successfully fought the Kathi insurgents. He forged bonds of friendship with the English and maintained good relations with them till his death in 1816.

In the early part of the 19th century, the English were brought to the peninsula by their own larger interests but more particularly by the interests of the Gaekwad therein. The early Maratha inroads in Gujarat took them to Saurashtra. The Amreli Prant, which became the centre of the Gaekwad's political power in Saurashtra is linked with the history of the Gaekwad's Government in Kathiawar which may broadly be divided into three periods, *viz*, (1) the Mulkgiri period, (2) the period of sovereignty supported by the British Government, and (3) the period in which the sovereignty barring Amreli and Okhamandal Prants was ceded to the British Government.

The Maratha arms seemed first to have been carried into the Kathiawar by the Peshwa's Senapati Khanderao Dabhade and his lieutenant Damaji Gaekwad. Pilaji, the son of Damaji, and Kantaji Kadam Bande conducted operations against the Gohils of Sihor in 1722. Pilaji was succeeded by his son, Damaji II in 1732, who laid the greater part of the Kathiawar under control. These conquests were shared with the Peshwa by a Partition Treaty in 1752-53 [1] From this time upto the close of the century, the joint troops of the Peshwa and the Gaekwad collected the tributes from Kathiawar, from 1799 to 1814 The Gaekwad farmed the Peshwa's share by employing his own troops to collect the whole.

Mulkgiri Campaigns—By 1760 the Maratha rule came to be established in Gujarat. The Marathas gradually extended their sway throughout the peninsula, but the rule did not take the form of occupation Every year, the peninsula was visited by the Mulkgiri Army under Babaji Apaji and Shivram Gardi. They were successful Mulkgiri commanders in the last decade of the eighteenth century and in the beginning of the nineteenth century Both these commanders increased the demands and levied them with severity Babaji met with hostilities from several important chiefs. The situation was complicated by an insurrection headed by Malharrao of Kadi, but he overcame in all resistance and collected all the arrears of tribute The account given below gives a clear idea of the Mulkgiri campaigns.

1. In 1752-53 the Peshwa obtained a partition of Damaji Gaekwad's conquests in Kathiawar, and the Gaekwad agreed to assist the Peshwa with troops when necessary Vide AITCHISON C. U., *A collection of Treaties, Engagement and Sanads relating to India and neighbouring Countries*, Vol. VI, (1932), p 284.

Even after the Gaekwad got a foothold in the peninsula, the Mulkgiri expeditions continued with increased severity on the tributary chiefs. In 1777, Jivaji Shamrao marched into the peninsula for collecting the tributes there. After strengthening his position, he pursued a policy of expansion by invading the surrounding areas. Diwan Amarji of Junagadh, an astute statesman of the day, would not tolerate such a powerful and ambitious neighbour. He, therefore, marched against Jivaji and drove away all the outlying Maratha forces. Jivaji shut up himself in the fortress at Amreli and resisted the Diwan. Ultimately, he surrendered to the Diwan and was forced to leave the province. The Amreli fort was destroyed afterwards.

Fatesingrao Gaekwad who was the Regent of the State became much annoyed at the discomfiture of Jivaji and decided to undertake an expedition himself to restore the fallen prestige of the Marathas in the region. He marched in 1778 under a strong army and found Diwan Amarji well prepared to meet him on the battlefield. At this moment, many local talukdars and others approached Fatesingrao and informed him about the ability, war-strategy and diplomacy of Amarji and dissuaded him from taking any action and advised him to befriend the Diwan. Fatesingrao sized up the situation and gave up his bellicose attitude and befriended Amarji by sending the presents.

The Peshwa and the Gaekwad had entered into the Partition Treaty in 1752-53 with the result that their joint troops collected the tributes from the peninsula. From 1799 to 1814, the Gaekwad was forced to farm the Peshwa's share, as the latter was passing through great political crisis.

In the last decade of the eighteenth century, Shivram Gardi and in the beginning of the nineteenth century, Babaji Apaji, proved themselves as the most successful Mulkgiri commanders. Shivram Gardi commenced his expenditions in 1793-94 and gained experience about assessing the capacity of the country to pay a greater amount of tribute than before. He also exacted the increased amount of tributes with severity.

Similarly, Babaji Apaji also conducted three great mulkgiri expeditions between 1803 and 1807. In the first expedition, he met with the combined opposition of the chiefs of the peninsula under the rebel Malharrao, who belonged to the Gaekwad family and who was the ex-jagirdar of Kadi. He had escaped from Nadiad by the end of 1802 and, entering the peninsula, organised some chiefs against the Gaekwad. The rebels occupied Amreli, Damnagar and Dhari in turn but had to vacate them under the strong pressure of Babaji who had the assistance of the British troops. Malharrao was chased wherever he went. Finally, he was defeated and taken prisoner and sent away to Bombay, where he died. By this

time (1802), the Gaekwad had entered into an agreement with the British for the suppression of Malharrao. The British were given the Gaekwad's territories in Surat Atthavisi and the latter agreed to have a British subsidiary force and to give territories for its maintenance. According to this agreement, Col. Walker came as the first Resident in Baroda in 1802.

In 1803, Mukundrao who rebelled at Amreli and caused great sedition in the country, was defeated by Diwan Ranchodji Amraji of Junagadh. The Nagar Desais of Wansavad who were held for ransom by Mukundrao were also liberated. Mukundrao was forced to leave the country and peace was restored.

During the second expedition in 1804 Babaji marched upto Dev Patan plundering and levying the treble amount of the tribute exacted by Shivram Gardi. He besieged the fort of Vanthali for two months but failed to capture it. His third expedition was conducted by his able lieutenant Vithalrao Devaji, who was destined to play significant role in the peninsula as a representative of the Gaekwad.

Modern Period

The modern period commenced with the political settlement by Col. Walker with the rulers of States and Estates in Kathiawad of 1807-08.

By the end of 1803, some of the weaker *talukdars* and chiefs of Chital, Jetpur, Kundla, etc., who had suffered from the exactions of the chiefs of Bhavnagar, Junagadh and Nawanagar as well as of the Gaekwad and the Peshwa, applied to Col. Walker, the Resident at Baroda, for interference and protection. But the Bombay Government did not allow him to carry out his plans in the peninsula After the end of Maratha wars, the Bombay Government directed Col. Walker in 1807, to proceed to Kathiawar and to ascertain from the chiefs, whether they would be ready to submit to his arbitration. At this time the British Government had decided to associate itself with Gaekwad in enforcing his tributary rights in Kathiawad and to put an end to the Mulkgiri system for the collection of the tributes.

The combined forces of the British and the Gaekwad headed by Colonel Walker and Babaji Apaji respectively entered Kathiawad in August 1807 and worked for the settlement which was finalised in May 1808.

Colonel Walker's Settlement

No fewer than 153 engagements were entered into with the various Chiefs and Princes in Kathiawar. Each Chief and Ruler was required to sign two documents. One was 'Fael Zamin Bond', providing for general

peace of the country and protection of the possessions of the British Government, Peshwas and Gaekwar. This engagement was signed by a board on behalf of the ruler and for the faithful performance of its terms, counter security was taken from other chiefs so as to establish a chain of responsibility, making each chief liable for his neighbour. The second kind of engagement was for payment and fixation of tribute and for this, security was given, renewable after 10 years. In those cases, where a chief was not liable to pay any tribute to Gaekwar, only one engagement was taken.

'Fael Zamin Bond' contained various kinds of covenants. In some the chiefs bound themselves to abstain from annoying merchants and travellers and to give them guards till they leave their territories. They were, if they did this, not to be made liable for compensation for robberies or for the production of the thief. In some, the chiefs were made responsible for compensations for robberies as well as the production of the thief. In some, the chiefs were made responsible for tracing within their limits the tracks of any bad character, while in the rest they were made responsible for highway robberies absolutely and no reservation was made regarding production of the thief.

In 1820, an agreement was entered into between the Gaekwad of Baroda and the East India Company. By this and Article 7 of the Treaty of 1817, the British Government acquired supreme authority in Kathiawar except in those portions thereof which were under the direct administration of the Gaekwad, *i. e.*, Amreli, Kodinar and Okha Mandal.

The Kathiawar chiefs, partly from their peculiarly embarrassing position and partly from their weakness due to the sub-division of their jurisdictions, were handicapped in acting upto the engagements which bound them to preserve the peace of the country and suppress crime. Eventually in 1831, the British Government decided to establish a Criminal Court of Justice presided over by the Political Agent and aided by three or four chiefs as assessors for controlling capital crimes in the estates of the chiefs, who were too weak to punish such offences or crimes committed by one chief upon another or otherwise than in the legitimate exercise of their own power.

The Gaekwad's Rule

After the departure of Colonel Walker and upto the year 1820, the Kathiawar peninsula was controlled by Vithalrao Devaji who was appointed as Sar Suba of the Kathiawar. An Assistant to the Resident was also appointed there to help the Sar Suba. Vithalrao resided at Amreli, the capital of the possessions of Gaekwad in Saurashtra. The duties of Vithalrao Devaji's representative were to ensure collection of the Peshwa's

and the Gaekwad's tribute, to maintain peace with the aid of the Gaekwad's troops, settle disputed successions, interefere among local chiefs, and punish offenders seized in chiefship of which they were not subjects. The peninsula was visited by a severe famine in 1812-13 and many local rebellions took place which had to be suppressed with the help of the British arms. The Gaekwad who was in difficulty at Baroda could not wield the paramount power with sufficient vigour. The farm of the Peshwa's share by the Gaekwad terminated in 1814 and the Peshwa sent officers to collect his own tribute, thereby not only introducing into the peninsula the evils of a double government but also weakening the influence of the Gaekwad with the chiefs of Kathiawar. The Kathiawar peninsula by a conspiracy of adverse circumstances at the time was thrown into a very sad plight, but the treaty with the Peshwa of 1817 followed by the downfall of the Peshwa's power in 1818 and the extension of the British power in Western India simplified the matters, and in 1820 on the accession of Sayajirao Gaekwad II, a treaty was made with him by which he agreed to refrain from sending troops into the peninsula (except to the *Khalsah mahals*) and from making any demand on Zamindars except through the mediation of the British Government on the understanding that his tribute should be collected for him by the British Government free of collection charges. This was the beginning of the third period of the Gaekwad's history in Kathiawar. The British Government having succeeded to the Peshwa's right and having obtained from the Gaekwad the cession of those rights became the paramount power in Kathiawar. The Gaekwad's sovereignty was limited to his own possession.

VITHALRAO DEVAJI

Vith. lrao Devaji was in more than one sense responsible for the expansion and consolidation of Gaekwad's power in Saurashtra. The territorial possessions of the Gaekwad in the Amreli district were as under:

Amreli—It is interesting to note that Amreli has been mentioned in *Ain-i-Akbari* as constituting a Mahal in Akbar's time, being included in the Sarkar of Sorath and the Suba of Gujarat. At that time, its revenue was estimated at 17,84,160 *dams*[1], *i.e.*, Rs. 44,604. As the area of the Mahal was not mentioned, the incidence of the revenue taken by Akbar could not be worked out.

At the time of the appearance of Damajirao II (1732-1768), on the scene about the year 1730, Amreli was held by three parties, *viz.*, (1) Kathis of the Jabalia tribe, (2) some Saiyads who had obtained grants of land from the Emperor of Delhi, and (3) the Foujdar (Nawab) of Junagadh, who was subordinate to the Subedar of Ahmedabad. Damaji imposed tribute on all these parties. The Saiyads being harassed by the Kathis and being unable

1. A *dam* was a copper coin equal to $\frac{1}{40}$th of a rupee.

to pay the Jamabandi, sought the protection of the Marathas by adding their one-third share. The Gaekwad in the course of time absorbed the whole of the land of the Saiyads and Kathis, and made good his footing by two principal methods, *viz.*, (1) by the appropriation of lands of Kathis and others in satisfaction of non-payment of Jamabandi, and (2) by taking over the lands of Girasias, who were unable to protect themselves from the attacks of the local chiefs and who surrendered a portion of their patrimony in order to retain the remainder.

The Nawab of Junagadh had one-third share in Amreli. After the death of Nawab Saheb Hamid Khan in 1811, Vithalrao with the aid of the English contrived to get that share by way of *nazarana* from the new Nawab Bahadur Khan. Vithalrao built a fort in Amreli and ruled almost independently. The expansion of the Amreli mahal was effected by Vithalrao Devaji between 1809 and 1820, which continued till the Baroda State's merger in the Bombay State in 1949.

As the rule of primogeniture was not applicable among Kathis Girasias, their territories were fragmented and reduced in size with the passage of time. In Kathiawar, famine stalked the land every five years with the result that many Girasias were reduced to poverty and want and were forced to surrender land as Jiwai to the stronger neighbouring ruler. Vithalrao Devaji, took advantage of the sorry plight of Girasias. In 1813 there was a severe famine, and Vithalrao Devaji obtained Kathi territories of Chanchai Kantala and Khadaghat and extended the Amreli territory which subsequently was divided into Amreli, Dhari and Khamblia mahals.

Damnagar—The next acquisition in point of order was Damnagar formerly called Chhabhadia. This belonged to the Thakor of Lathi who in the year 1830 gave his daughter in marriage to Gaekwad Damaji II. Chhabhadia and six villages were given in dowry, and at the same time, the tribute from Lathi was commuted to a *nazarana* of one horse per annum. After Colonel Walker's settlement, Vithalrao Devaji added to this nucleus by getting some villages written over by the Kathis of Babra and others. The Palitana *bhayad* gave Vithalrao Devaji in 1812. Rupawati out of which Ganeshgadh and Memda were formed. The Khuman Kathis gave Vithalrao Babra and ten other villages. Out of these, six were shortly returned to Babrawala through Captain Barnwell and five retained, *viz.*, Chavand, Rajkot, Hirana, Karakolia and Ambardi.

Bhimkatta—In 1806-07 the Rajput Girasias of Bhimkatta in the Navanagar taluka having had a quarrel with Khavas Sagram (who was in charge of the district), assigned half of their estate together with sovereign authority to the Gaekwad. Bhimkatta was acquired in 1806-07, during the administration of Fatesingrao Gaekwad II, the Regent.

Dhari—The fort of Dhari in the 18th century belonged to the Thebani Kathis of Sarasia who ceded it in pal to a noted freebooter named Raning Vala of the Vankia taluka. Raning having gone out in *Baharvata* (outlawry), the taluka of Dhari was annexed by Gaekwad. In 1806-07 the Alag Dhanani Kathis of Sarasia wrote over the estate of thirteen villages to the Gaekwad. In 1811-12, the Alag Dhanani Kathis of Chachai wrote over the whole of their giras in the Dalkhania *parganah;* and between the years 1811 and 1813, the Alag Dhanani Kathis of the Dhatarwad *parganah* wrote over 78 villages to the Gaekwad. Sarasia, Chachai, and Dhatarwad were incorporated with the Dhari taluka. Nine villages belonging to the Jetpur taluka were incorporated with the mahals in the following manner. Amreli was originally entitled to *chauth* in twenty-four villages of Jetpur. She made encroachments, and at last became possessed of nine villages in addition to a fixed sum. Out of these 9 villages, two villages were given in perpetuity by the Nawab of Junagadh to Gangadhar Shastri and Vithalrao Devaji and were afterwards incorporated in the Amreli mahal by the Gaekwad Chalala and its 6 villages formerly belonged to Kathis of the Vala tribe who mortgaged their estates to the Jam of Navanagar. In 1812, when the Jam endeavoured to assert his independence, the English and the Gaekwad armies marched against him and reduced him to submission. On this favourable occasion Vithalrao made an arrangement with the Jam by which the mortgage of Chalala was purchased for the Gaekwad and it was included into the Dhari mahal. It may be noted that acquisition of Dhari took place in 1806-07, during the time of Fatesingrao Gaekwad, the Regent.

Kodinar—It is very difficult to surmise as to when the Gaekwad first entered Kodinar It is known that Damajirao had obtained some footing in Kodinar. It was under Bukhari and Kadri Saiyads who had obtained it as grant from the Amirs and Sultan of Gujarat. About 1724, the Marathas prevailed over its proprietors and exacted tributes from them. In course of time, the Junagadh State assumed its control and managed the affairs till it was finally acquired by Vithalrao Devaji in 1811.

The complete possession of Kodinar *paraganah* was obtained under peculiar circumstances. In 1811, Hamid Khan, the Nawab of Junagadh, died and a dispute arose between his sons Bahadur Khan and Salabat Khan. Bahadur Khan was placed on the throne by Jamadar Umar Mukasam supported by a strong party. The support and authority of the Gaekwad for the assumption of the title was sought. The Resident and his Assistant enquired and established the fact that Salabat Khan was of spurious origin and Bahadur Khan was, therefore, confirmed on the *masnad* by the combined Government and a *nazarana* was taken from him by the Gaekwad. The Gaekwad stationed a garrison at Mul-Dwarka for the protection of Bahadur Khan. Half of the revenue of Kodinar *paraganah* was ceded by the

Nawab to the Gaekwad for the support of that garrison. Immediately after this, an arrangement was concluded between the Gaekwad and the Nawab, whereby the Nawab's share in the Kodinar *paraganah* was obtained by the Gaekwad.

Vithalrao took possession of Kodinar from the Saiyads, who were in actual possession of it and in return gave them new grants by issuing new *parwanas* in 1814. He gave five villages to Bukhari Saiyads and three to Kadri Saiyads. The extension and improvement of Amreli was due to Vithalrao, who built many works of public utility. The limits of Kodinar *paraganah* with the Junagadh State remained unsettled for many years. Colonel Lester decided the issue, under which the route between Dhari and Kodinar was kept open forever and the right of Junagadh State to impose duty on the goods sent from one to another place was abolished. Vithalrao remained in Amreli as Sar Suba till 1820, when he was appointed as Minister at Baroda.

In 1828, Amreli and Damnagar were among the territories sequestrated by the British for the non-payment of loans raised under British guarantee by Gaekwad Sayajirao II (1819-1847). But they were restored in 1832, when Sayajirao had privately settled with the creditors. Vithalrao was succeeded by Gopal Atmaram and the latter by Veniram Aditram as Diwan. Veniram procured a farm of Amreli for his former patron, the Nawab of Baroda whose agent at Amreli gave cause for numerous complaints of misrule and oppression. The farm of Amreli was taken from the Nawab and the management given to Gopalrao Mairal whose agent disposed of several disputes with the Political Agent of Kathiawar who continued to entertain complaints from Amreli Girasias against the Gaekwad, though the latter refused to recognise the right of Political Agent to interfere in the matter. The dispute lasted for a number of years and at last a commission consisting of Captain Barr for Kathiawar and Lieutenant Barton for Baroda disposed of almost all the disputed cases in 1857. The Gir dispute between Junagadh and Baroda was finaly settled in 1869 by Colonel J. Lester, Special Commissioner.

Maharaja Khanderao (1856-1870)

In 1861, Khanderao Gaekwad introduced some reforms into the administration of the mahals *viz.*, he separated the judiciary from the executive and appointed Faujdars and Nyayadhishes. Vaccination was introduced. The farming system was abolished and a revenue survey of all the mahals was made and police corps of 300 men was raised to supplement the Sibandi. In 1862, the Maharaja himself visited the mahals and was attended by the Resident. He made enquiries and heard complaints and issued necessary orders with a view to inaugurating these reforms. In 1863,

the first British post office was opened at Amreli and a road was made from Dalkhama to Ghantvad through the Gir. Owing to the disturbed state of Kathiawad in 1864 the Gaekwad under the instruction of the British authorities, converted a police battalion into a battalion of regulars and was kept at Dhari, near the Gir Jungles, a resort of the lawless characters of Kathiawad The regiment was kept under the exclusive orders of the Assistant Resident of Amreli. In the period of Maharaja Sayajirao, *i.e.*, 1856, it was decided to shift the headquarters of the battalion from Dhari to Amreli, however, it was not carried out, though detachments were stationed at Amreli, Kodinar, Damnagar, Bhimkatta and Ratanpur, all Gaekwad possessions in Kathiawad. In 1898, the Government of India handed over the complete control over the battalion on the condition that adequate measures for the maintainance of peace and order in and on the borders of Amreli mahals would be adopted and assistance would be readily given for putting down outlawry and dacoity in the region.

MALHARRAO GAEKWAD (1870-1875)

Malharrao succeeded his brother Khanderao. He was imprisoned in a house in Padra on grounds of complicity in the revolt of 1857 and his conspiracy against his brother in 1863.

Malharrao commenced his reign with the intention of pleasing the British Government. He determined and took revenge for the sufferings he had endured. Under him the State of Baroda deteriorated greatly. He was more busy in the satisfaction of his lust and personal appetites than in the welfare of the State. Col. Phayre left no opportunity to expose some of Malharrao's misdeeds and this led to the appointment of Commission to inquire in the Baroda affairs. On the basis of report which went against the Maharaja the Government of India decided to give the Gaekwad a last chance to improve. But the Maharaja failed to do so. The matters reached to a critical stage. Malharrao was arrested, tried and deposed in 1875 on the ground of misconduct and misgovernment of the State.

In the interval between the deposition of Malharrao and the arrival of the Diwan Sir T. Madhav Rao on 16th May, 1875, the management of the mahals was assumed by the Agent to the Governor General, who issued a proclamation remitting the arrears of revenue for five years, and promising an equitable reduction in the assessment. On the formation of the new administration of Baroda, the system of managing the mahals underwent considerable changes. A Suba was appointed with Naib Suba under him. The police was remodelled and the medical department enlarged. A Sub-Engineer was appointed for the public works department. A District Judge was

appointed at Amreli and Munsiffs at Kodinar and Dwarka. With a view to improvement of communications in the mahals, several metalled roads were constructed. A municipality was established at Amreli aided by a grant from the State.

In November 1878, Diwan Raja Sir T. Madhav Rao, paid a visit to Amreli for inspection. During his regime, the administration achieved stability. According to the *Baroda Gazetteer*, "Order and publicity had taken the place of confusion and concealment in this as in all other matters. Land revenue assessments, and all other taxation, had been so systematised that both rulers and ruled knew exactly what the demands would be from year to year, a very significant reform. A number of obnoxious taxes, as unnecessary as they were vexatious, had been abolished and the excessive land-tax had been reduced. Government departments with clearly defined spheres of work and powers, had replaced the old haphazard system. Regular courts of justice, and a strong police force, together with a medical and an educational department, were for the first time brought into existence. It should not be forgotten, that the Diwan received much valuable assistance from the Residents at Baroda from 1875 to 1882. First Sir Richard Meade, and after him for six years, Mr. Melvill, so strengthened the hands of the new administration by effective and sympathetic support that what at first appeared hopeless became ultimately a complete success."[1]

Maharaja Sayajirao III (1875-1939)

After the deposition of Malharrao, the British caused an inquiry to be made as to whether there was amongst the Gaekwad's connexions any one who might after suitable training succeed to the throne. It was reported that in the village of Kavlana, taluka Malegoan, district of Khandesh, there were three brothers who descended from Prataprao, the brother of Damajirao Gaekwad (1732-1768). The second named Gopal Rao, only of thirteen years old, was by reason of his tender age and natural ability, adpoted by Khanderao's widow Jamnabai at the suggestion of the paramount British Power, and was seated on the throne on 27th of May, 1875 under the name of Sayajirao III.

Administration of Maharaja Sayajirao III

The sixty-four years that this remarkable ruler was on the throne was the golden period in the history of the Baroda State. The administration of the Maharaja proved beneficial in more ways than one. The departments of Government were formed on the pattern of those in the British India. Old laws were amended and new codes were framed. The

1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, Bombay, (1923), pp. 607-608.

executive and judicial functions were separated. Considerable progress was made in education, particularly compulsory education in primary schools. Sanitation and medical facilities were extended. Railways and roads were constructed and enlarged. He spent huge sums on education, and extended the benefits of foreign travel and training to selected young men. Panchayats were established in every village, taluka and district. The principle of self-government was accepted and was applied to municipalities with a view to offer practical training in local self-government to the people to provide for the prompt removal of grievances. Moreover, the District Local Board and Municipalities were established on an elective basis, indigenous industries and commerce were fostered and encouraged and railways, canals, tanks and public works of all kinds were encouraged.

SAYAJIRAO III'S VISIT TO AMRELI

Sayajirao III was invested with full powers in 1881. In 1886-87, he visited for the first time the Amreli Prant in order to familiarize himself with the people and the problems of district administration.

In an age, when the rest of India had hardly thought of free and compulsory education of the people, His Highness in 1892 chose Amreli along with nine villages of the taluka for introducing compulsory education on experimental basis. After fifteen years' experience of compulsory education in the Amreli taluka, the Maharaja extended it to the whole State in 1906.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

As far back as 1892, Maharaja Sayajirao conceived an idea of building up a full-fledged system of representation from the village level to the taluka and the district level.

Before 1877, there were no municipalities in the districts of the State. In 1877, municipalities were established in most of the taluka towns, but they had no definite instructions or financial provisions for their efficient functioning. Only very few simple rules were made for their working and they were entirely managed by the *Vahivatdars* of the talukas. Amreli had such type of municipality.

In the Baroda State, the ancient form of self-government in a village, *i. e.*, the village panchayat, was revived after 1893. Provision was made for the appointment of a panchayat in every village and for the maintenance of village powers and services in accordance with ancient usage. To meet the expenses of those services a deduction was made from the revenue demand in each case. In 1901 an elective system was introduced in Amreli district. Amreli district had 212 such village panchayats in 1904.

After placing the village panchayats on sound footing, the Maharaja devoted his attention in constituting the taluka and district panchayats. In 1904, the Local Self-Government Act was passsed under which boards were set up in every district and sub-districts of the State. The number of elected and nominated members was 18 for the Amreli taluka, 16 for the Kodinar taluka, 12 for the Damnagar taluka, 16 for the Dhari taluka and 10 for the Khambha taluka at that time.

A Municipal Act based on the Bombay Municipal Act III of 1901, was passed under which the town municipalities were divided into 'A' and 'B' classes. The former were to be managed by the *Vahivatdars* and the latter were to be self-governing. Along with other towns, Amreli from the very beginning was selected for the establishment of 'B' municipality. The Amreli Municipality had in all 24 members, elected as well as nominated in 1923.

DHARA SABHA

In order to associate the people with the administration of the Dhara Sabha or State Legislative Assembly was constituted in 1908. The total number of councillors fixed in the beginning was 17, but was subsequently increased to 26 and in 1912-13 to 30. The two members represented the Amreli district in it. This Dhara Sabha was purely an advisory body. Though Maharaja Sayajirao held very liberal and progressive ideals, no significant constitutional rights were given to the people during his lifetime. Popular or responsible government was persistently demanded by the people but it was not given till 1949, when the merger of the Baroda State into the Bombay State was in offing. Throughout the long reign of Maharaja Sayajirao, Amreli district had the advantage of better administration and all the progressive and welfare reforms. After his death the affairs of Amreli district were also carried out in a quiet but efficient manner by Maharaja Pratapsingrao (1939-48).

NATIONAL AND POPULAR ACTIVITIES

The year 1920 was an epoch-making year in the history of India. Mahatma Gandhi, who by then had played the role of a co-operator, turned out to be an apostle of non-co-operation. The way the British Government behaved in tackling the problems such as the Rowlatt Bills and the Jallianwala Bag Massacre at Amritsar, the popular representation had all conspired to create serious discontent among the people. The situation became so explosive that the rivers of blood would have flowed in the country, had Mahatma Gandhi not stepped in and diverted the discontent into non-violent movement. He assumed leadership of the Congress and gave a new and revolutionary orientation to the Indian politics thereafter. Side by side he also undertook the work of uplift of

the masses by reviving and encouraging village industries such as hand-spinning and hand-weaving. For achieving political freedom, *Satyagraha* was conceived as a sole method. The movement was called non-violent non-co-operation, passive resistance or civil disobedience all different facets of a single concept and caught the imagination of the people and influenced them greatly. Thus, the struggle for freedom from the British rule, was carried on. Similarly the economic upliftment and social ameliorative work was also pursued simultaneously.

Naturally, all these had tremendous effect not only on the people living under the British rule, but also on the subjects of Indian Princes. In some of the States, the people formed associations to safeguard and promote their interests in political, social and economic spheres.

The Kathiawad Hitvardhak Sabha which was founded at Rajkot was superseded by the *Kathiawad Rajkiya Parishad* in 1921. The Parishad enthused the people, living under the yoke of petty as well as big States, a new sense of political consciousness and the spirit of patriotism and nationalism. It also reflected the needs and aspirations of the people and showed the methods to achieve them. The people of Amreli were influenced by its activities.

The Vadodara Rajya Prajamandal which was founded in 1916 at Navsari ventilated the grievances of the people of the Baroda State in social and political matters till 1948. Though its methods were passive, non-violent and co-operative with the State authorities, they were dynamic. Like the Indian National Congress, the annual sessions of the Prajamandal were held at different places in the Baroda State territories. Its policies and working had great impact on the progressive activities. Out of twenty-one sessions of the Prajamandal three were held at Amreli in 1926, 1933 and 1941.

Mahatma Gandhi in Amreli

Before the first session of the Prajamandal was held in Amreli in 1926, Mahatma Gandhi paid a brief visit to Amreli in 1925. After the withdrawal of the non-co-operation movement in 1922, he devoted his time and energy in advocating the use of *khadi* and in removing from the Indian social life, the curse of untouchability. He made frequent and extensive tours of different parts of India for this work. He made a whirlwind tour of Kathiawad exhorting the people to adopt *khadi* and to eradicate the social evil of untouchability. From Palitana, he moved towards Amreli. On the way, he deviated from his route and reached Lathi where he first insisted on visiting the locality of the Harijans. At the meeting the Harijans requested Gandhiji to build a separate temple for them in the village and

begged for assistance. Gandhiji vehemently opposed the demand and advised them to raise the funds first from amongst themselves, and then to turn to others for help and donations. In spite of that, in the presence of Mahatma Gandhi the funds began to flow from the people who had gathered there.

At Amreli, the town municipality and the local board presented addresses to Mahatma Gandhi and handed over a sizable amount collected for the purpose. He was satisfied with the work done in the propagation of *khadi* in the Amreli district. Mahatma's visit to Amreli strengthened the base of the Prajamandal activities in the district.

The Prajamandal Session, 1926

The fifth session of the Prajamandal was held in 1926 and was presided over by Shri Ganesh Bhasker Sane a prominent public worker and pleader of Baroda. This Session proved fruitful in many ways : it amplified the aims and objectives of the Prajamandal, and demanded responsible government under the patronage of His Highness Maharaja Sayajirao Gaekwad. To achieve this, the Prajamandal resolved to launch a struggle for mobilizing public opinion. A constructive programme was also chalked out for implementation.

Salt Satyagraha

Though Amreli was under the Gaekwad's rule, it had become a rendezvous for the political and social workers from the adjacent territories. The Baroda State Government connived at certain political and constructive activities in the district.

Amreli participation in Salt Satyagraha at Dholera (in Dhandhuka taluka of Ahmedabad district) in 1930 is worthy of notice. In Saurashtra, Salt Satyagraha was launched at Dholera with the permission of Mahatma Gandhi. Amrutlal Sheth, the veteran freedom fighter, took the lead. Zaverchand Meghani, Mohanlal Mehta (Sopan), Vajubhai Shah, Narbheshanker Paneri and others, actuated by the spirit of nationalism, started recruiting volunteers for the Satyagraha. They visited Amreli in turn and influenced many youths to give up their studies and join this great struggle. Many volunteers from the Amreli district particularly from Kodinar and Rajula and other parts of Kathiawar also rushed to Dholera but Amreli ranked first in organizing and despatching the highest number of volunteers who were arrested and imprisoned by the British authorities. All attempts of the Govenment to crush down the Satyagraha, however, failed. The arrested persons were freed only after the signing of the Irwin-Gandhi Pact in 1931.

THE PRAJAMANDAL SESSION, 1933

The eleventh session of the Prajamandal was held at Amreli in 1933 and was presided over by Shri Abbasji Tayabji, a retired judge of the Baroda State who had actively participated in the Dharasana Salt Satyagraha in 1930. Presiding over the Prajamandal Session, Abbasji stressed the need for strengthening and enhancing the power and prestige of the Prajamandal. He appealed to the people to set up branches of the Prajamandal everywhere in the State and to organise and agitate for their legitimate rights. During the year, Abbasji strove hard to introduce dynamism in the activities of the Prajamandal. The services rendered by him were highly appreciated and he was chosen as President of the Prajamandal for the year 1934 also.

THE AMRELI PRANTIK PARISHAD, 1939

The *Amreli Prantik Parishad* was organised in 1939 and was presided over by Shri Pranlal Thakorlal Munshi, a prominent worker and editor of 'Prajamandal,' a popular organ of the institution. Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, who attended the meeting of the *Parishad's* executive council praised the benevolent Government of the Baroda State, but regretted that the demand for the responsible government was not conceded to the people by the Maharaja. He advised the people to continue the agitation for the responsible government with utmost regard towards the Maharaja. He also appealed to the people to preserve Hindu-Muslim unity in Amreli.

THE PRAJAMANDAL SESSION, 1941

The seventeenth session of the Prajamandal was presided over by an eminent pleader Shri Chhotalal Sutaria and staunch worker of the "Prajamandal" in Baroda. He had also presided over the 9th session of the Prajamandal in 1931. He was later on appointed as the Diwan of the Baroda State. This session also reiterated forcefully its demand for the responsible government in the State.

It is creditable that Amreli had produced many public workers like Mohanlal Virjibhai Patel, Ramaji Hansraj and others. A special mention must be made of Shri Jagjivan Narayan Mehta and Shri Jivraj Narayan Mehta, the former Chief Minister of Gujarat. Jagjivandas was hailed by the people as 'Bapa'. He dedicated himself wholly in the cause of the people.

Jagjivandas Mehta's services were duly honoured, when he was chosen to preside over the twenty-first and the last session of the Prajamandal at Visnagar in 1948. This session proved to be historic in the sense that the long-standing demand for responsible government by the Prajamandal, was conceded by His Highness Maharaja Pratapsingrao

Gaekwad. This session was also important as a first step towards the merger of the Baroda State with the Bombay State. After this session, within a couple of days, the Baroda State was merged with the Bombay State.

GENERAL POLITICAL TRENDS IN THE NON-BARODA AREAS

We have already dealt with the political and administrative conditions in the non-Baroda territories, such as Bhavnagar, Lathi and Junagadh States before Col. Walker's Settlement was entered into by these States. The developments subsequent to the Walker's Settlement of 1807 remains to be considered here. For settlement of internal disputes these States which formerly approached Gaekwad had then to look to the British. Thus, the first step that was taken by the British was the establishment of the Court of Criminal Justice in 1831. This court was presided over by the Political Agent and assisted by three or four chiefs. This court was entrusted with the task of trying cases of serious crimes in estates of petty chiefs who were too weak to take action themselves and also those cases in which chiefs were themselves involved. Chiefs, who sat with Political Agent decided cases in the light of their own ethical and legal system. On account of emergence of petty chiefs the then political and social system of Kathiawar was described as a system of sanguinary boundary disputes, murders, robbery, abduction, arson and self-outlawry. The chiefs took the law in their hands and the court made little impression on them.

In order to reorganise and regularise the administration of the entire province in 1863, Colonel Keatinge, divided the chiefs into seven classes with a varying degree of jurisdiction. These classes were abolished in 1925, when non-jurisdictional Talukadars were grouped under thanas which were administered by Thanadars. The Thanadars were invested with the powers of second class magistrates and empowered in civil matters to hear suits upto Rs. 500. Of the twelve Thanas four, *viz.*, Babra, Dhrafa, Lodhika and Lakhapadar were placed in the Western Kathiawar Agency while the remaining, *viz.*, Wadwan district, Than, Dasada, Jhinghuwada, Bhoika, Songadh, Chok-Datha, Paliyad and Chotila were placed in the Eastern Kathiawar Agency.

In 1872, a Judicial Assistant with the powers of a Sessions Judge was appointed to conduct judicial work. A Judicial Commissioner with the powers of a High Court was appointed when the Western India States Agency was created in October, 1924. In 1873, the Rajasthanik Court presided over by a British Officer was established with powers to enquire into and decide the mutual rights and liabilities of Chiefs and Girassias. This court was abolished in 1899, when the powers exercised by it were reverted to the States.

It would be observed that the rudiments of a judicial system came into being in the States after 1863. Codes based on the models of the British penal and criminal procedure codes were drawn up in the larger and more progressive States.

Another important institution that came to be established after 1863 was Rajkumar College at Rajkot where the sons of the chiefs were to be educated. Col Keatinge and his many-sided activities in Saurashtra represented a new awareness of the Empire. The new Imperialism which was being felt in England since the days of Lord Palmerston and finally culminated in the assumption by the Queen of England, of the title of Empress of India at the first Imperial Darbar held at Delhi in 1877. The rulers of Bhavnagar, Junagadh and Baroda States, attended the Darbar. To commemorate this occasion the system of salutes was instituted. The first class rulers were to be given a salute of eleven guns, while the second class State were to be given a salute of nine guns. On January 1st, 1878, the Political Agent ceremonially presented the banners and insignias of these honours to the recipients. Thereafter, ceremonial visits and Darbars became customary as the century drew to a close.

In 1902, however, 'Political Agent' was designated as 'Agent to the Governor in Kathiawar" and the former Assistants were placed in charge of each of the prants as Political Agents.

In 1923 and 1924, more radical changes took place in the peninsula keeping in line with the recommendations made in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report. The four prants which existed in the peninsula were then reduced to two, *viz.*, the Western Kathiawar Agency comprising the former Halar and Sorath districts with headquarters at Rajkot and the Eastern Kathiawar Agency comprising Jhalavad and Gohilwad with headquarters at Wadhwan.

The Western India States Agency was created in 1924, when the political control of the Bombay Government ceased and direct relations with the Government of India through an Agent to the Governor-General were established. The Western India Agency then comprised the State of Cutch, Kathiawar divided into the Western and the Eastern Kathiawar Agencies and the Banaskantha Agency which was formerly known as the Palanpur Agency. In 1933 the States and Estates of the Mahikantha Agency which were in political relations with the Government of Bombay, were transferred to this Agency.

The Attachment Scheme—Further relation of the administration of the States was attempted in 1943. By virtue of the Notification No. 60 of the Western India States Agency Gazette dated April 16, 1943,

the Government of India brought into effect the "Scheme of Attachment of small units." The scheme suggested that the smaller units were to be "attached" to their larger neighbours for purpose of administration so that they could share the benefits which only a larger unit could afford. Accordingly, the State of Lathi was attached to Bhavnagar. At the time when India won Independence, the peninsula of Kathiawar presented a bewildering conglomeration of as many as 222 States, big and small, each of them claiming special status, power and independence. There were 14 salute States, 17 non-salute States and 191 other smaller States or Estates exercising different degrees of jurisdiction. Non-salute and smaller States exercised semi-jurisdictional powers, some of which were very tiny principalities, barely over half a mile in area. The economic resources of such smaller States were not sufficient to meet the cost of an independent administrative machinery. The Government of India, therefore, formulated in 1943 a scheme known as the Attachment Scheme, whereunder certain smaller semi-jurisdictional States were tagged on to the adjoining bigger States for administrative purposes This attachment was made with a view to pursuing a uniform policy in the administration of certain common subjects, such as revenue, police, public health, education, etc., which could not be effectively carried out by smaller States with their limited resources. The areas of Amreli district which formed part of the Baroda State were not affected under the Attachment Scheme.

This Scheme was not popular with some of the smaller States affected by it, as they saw in this measure a dimunition of their existing authority and power. However, the opposition that they offered in the early stages disappeared gradually The only unit that resisted to the last was the State of Lathi. But in the end, the Crown Representative intervened and took a very strong line of action to make the ruler of the State realise and accept what was in the larger interest of the people An officer of the Bhavnagar State was appointed Diwan under the advice of the Political Agent to work for the Attachment Scheme. But this arrangement did not last long and came to an end with the Independence of the country and the integration of princely States in 1948.

Consultative and Legislative Bodies—With the advent of modern democratic ideas and the political agitation that was slowly and gradually spreading in the neighbouring British districts, Amreli and other princely areas in Kathiawar could not remain unaffected. In this respect, as said before the Baroda State was constitutionally far advanced. The Government of Baroda Act, 1940 defined the constitution, the functions and powers of the Executive Council, the Legislature and the Judiciary. The Dhara Sabha or the Legislative Assembly consisted of 62 (including 2 special) members of whom 37 were elected by constituencies on a wide franchise. Every person who held land assessed at not less than Rs. 30

or paid income-tax, or owned immovable property worth Rs. 1,000 or more or had passed the matriculation or an equivalent examination was entitled to vote at the elections and to stand as a candidate. Of these, 10 members represented Industry, Commerce, Labour and the Co-operative movement as special interests. The other 25 members of the Legislative Assembly included 6 *ex-officio* members and 17 nominated gentlemen of whom only 3 were officials and 2 special members. The Diwan was the President and the Deputy President was elected by the Legislative Assembly. They were assisted by three Parliamentary Secretaries appointed from the non-official members of the Legislative Assembly.

In the non-Baroda areas, Advisory Councils with nominated members were formed in Bhavnagar, Lathi, etc., in the initial stages and later on amplified by the adoption of the elective principle. It was Bhavnagar, however, which took the lead in introducing a number of political reforms. While the public itself was enlightened and had their own forum of popular agitation, (the *Bhavnagar Praja Parishad*), the rulers themselves were responsive to popular opinion and ready to march with the times. As a result, the State established as early as 1919 the *Praja Pratinidhi Sabha* which was constituted by nominated members numbering 38 drawn from various interests such as Bhayats, Mulgirasias, municipalities and business and cultivating classes. The members had a right to ask questions and to discuss such subjects as development of agriculture, commerce, industry, promotion of public welfare and implementation of Darbar's orders in public interest. A significant advance was, however, made in the year 1940, when His Highness Krishnakumarsinhji announced his decision to create a Dharasabha or Legislative Assembly in his State. It was given effect to by a proclamation dated 1st December, 1941. The Dharasabha was a body of 33 elected members, 16 nominated members and 6 *ex-officio* members. Besides providing for an elected member on the State Executive, the Act promulgated in this behalf gave powers to introduce bills, move resolutions and ask questions except on a few specified subjects. This body played a very important part in making public opinion keenly felt in the conduct of the State affairs.

It was after World War I that political consciousness developed among the people. The Kathiawar Political Conference was established in 1921 with the object of securing for the people of Kathiawar responsible Government under the aegis of the rulers. This organisation struggled on the one hand for securing civil liberties for the people of Kathiawar and on the other for their political rights, which ultimately ended in the demand for the complete unification of all the areas of Kathiawar.

With the advent of Independence in 1947, the Government of India set aside the Orders of attachment of States, Estates and Talukas, and

took them under its direct care. Rajkot was fixed as its headquarters on 15th August, 1947 and the process of unification was expedited till it was finally completed on the 15th April, 1948 Thus, a unified political entity within the Indian Union, the Union of the States of Saurashtra, came into existence in 1948.

After the formation of the Union of the States of Saurashtra, the major administrative reorganisation was necessiated as a result of reorganisation of States, in November 1956, and the Union of the States of Saurashtra was merged in the bigger Bombay State.

In 1959, the districts of Saurashtra were reorganised for administrative convenience. As a result, the Ghogho mahal of the district which was adjacent to the Bhavnagar district was merged in that district and the Okha Mandal was merged in the adjacent district of Jamnagar and certain areas from the Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh districts were merged in the Amreli district to make it a compact area.

With effect from May 1, 1960, the bigger Bombay State was bifurcated, when a separate State of Gujarat was formed with the three constituent units of Kutch, Saurashtra and former Bombay Gujarat. This change did not affect the territorial limits of the Amreli district.

APPENDIX I

Excavations at Amreli

(A Kshatrapa-Gupta Town)

The ancient site called the *Gohilwad Timbo,* meaning the mound of the Gohilwad, is situated one mile west of the Amreli town, sandwiched between the rivulets-Vadi on the west and Thebi on the east. The medieval fortification running along the left bank of the Thebi for some distance, marks the western limits of the modern town. The imposing gateway built by the Gaekwads of Baroda in the western fortification marks the last vestige of the latest rulers of Amreli.

It was in 1921 that late Shri Prataprai S. Mehta, being interested in antiquarian activities drew attention of the late His Highness the Maharaja Sir Sayajirao Gaekwad of Baroda, to the fact that Amreli was a town of considerable historical and archaeological importance. His Highness was pleased to learn this and ordered the then authorities of the State Archaeological Department to inquire and submit a detailed report in the matter. Archaeological excavations were carried out by late Dr. Hirananda Shastri, the then Director of Archaeology, Baroda State, and by his successor late Shri A S. Gadre in the years prior to 1945. The work was taken up again in 1952-53 with a view to providing a stratigraphic basis to the large number of antiquities unearthed during the previous explorations. These operations provided a firm datum line to proceed further in the direction of dating the early historical sites of Gujarat and establishing a cultural sequence of the pre-Solanki period The Red Polished Ware, which provides the necessary datum, has its focus in Saurashtra and occurs at several important sites distributed all over the sub-continent in the 1st 5th century A. D. Amreli is considered to be a key-site as it links up the early historical sites of Gujarat with those of northern, southern and eastern India through the Red Polished Ware, which is closely dated here It throws new light on the interrelation of cultures of the pre-and post-Gupta periods in Gujarat and north India.

Secondly, it has been possible to have an overall picture of the political, economic, social and religious conditions of Saurashtra in general and of Amreli in particular under the Kshatrapa and Gupta kings.

Thirdly, the discovery of post-cremation burials in cairn like pit-circles without other cultural appendages of the megalithic folk throws significant light on the co-mingling of two culturally divergent groups-one believing in cremation and the other in inhumation.

Source:

1. Director of Museums, Baroda.
2. RAO S. R., *Excavations at Amreli-A Kshtrapa-Gupta Town, Bulletin,* Vol. XVIII.

It was hitherto supposed that Saurashtra was not occupied by the Stone Age Men. But recently experts have collected early Stone Age Tools of quartzite, chert of inferior variety, from the bed of the Bhadar in central Saurashtra. The tools include handaxes of the late Acheulian type, cleaver and ovates. It is sufficient to note that Harappans and their successors reached as far as Amreli, as can be made out from their ceramic wares and other equipment found at Vaniavadar and Mota Machiala in the Amreli taluka and two proto-historic sites situated within a radius of six miles from Amreli. Vaniavadar situated on the right bank of the river Vadi was the Late Harappan settlement, whereas Mota Machiala on the left bank of the river Thebi was occupied by Lustrous Red Ware folk who lingered on here for a long time at least upto 1000 B. C. Amreli too came under the influence of a Chalcolithic community which used short parallel-sided blades of chalcedony in addition to copper and wheel-turned pottery. Fortunately, there are evidences of continued occupation of the site, ranging from 2nd century B. C. to 4th century A. D.

The Kshaharatas ruled as Kshatrapas in western India. The Kshatrapa Bhumaka was succeeded by Nahapana, whose coins dated between 119-125 A. D have been found in Saurashtra. In the Saka year 46, Nahapana appears to have been killed by Gautamiputra Satakarni, who uprooted the Kshaharata family. On their extinction, the Kardamakas, a branch of the Sakas, conquered Malwa and Gujarat from the Satavahanas, between 295 and 340 A. D. The rulers of Kardamaka dynasty styled themselves as Kshatrapa only. Rundrasimha III, the last Kshatrapa king, invaded the Gupta dominions and forced Ramagupta to accept a humiliating treaty. But Chandragupta killed his younger brother Ramagupta and defeated Rundrasimha in 378 A. D. Kumaragupta I, son of Chandragupta II, conquered Saurashtra in 400 A D The silver coins of Kumargupta I found at Amreli and Mota Machalia in the excavations prove that the Gupta dominions extended over Saurashtra.

On the ruins of Gupta Empire arose the principality of the Maitrakas at Valabhi, near Bhavnagar. Senapati Bhatarka, who was a general of the Gupta kings, became independent and founded the Maitraka dynasty. For three more centuries, the Maitraka rulers held full sway over Saurashtra and extended their territories over Gujarat. But the Maitraka kingdom was weakened on account of invasion of the Tajikas or the Arabs during the Caliphate of Hasan (723-743 A. D.). The excavated finds from Amreli mainly relate to the Kshatrapa, Gupta and Maitraka periods.

Hundreds of important finds such as terracotta figurines and metal and shell objects have been found from the excavations. The most important result of the excavations is that a continuous history of Amreli from 2nd century B. C. to the end of the 4th century A. D. is now available. It is possible to ascertain its importance as a politico-religious centre in Saurashtra.

Moreover the excavations made substantial contribution to archaeological research in India by providing a firm datum line in the Red Polished Ware. The large scale excavations at Amreli had resulted in the discovery of many forms of Red Polished Wares, thus supplying sufficient material to study its typology, fabric, surface-treatment and other details. This ceramic ware is distinguished from other wares on account of its fine polish, distinctive types, and superior fabric produced from a well-levigated clay. They have thrown much light on the socio-economic conditions of the people and their religious practices in the Kshatrapa and Gupta periods. Amreli was an important political and religious centre in the domain of the Western Kshatrapas In the field of art, the terracotta figurines and stone plaques of Amreli depicting gods and goddesses, and animal and human forms show the influence of various schools of art prevalent in India in the early century of the Christian era.

The earliest occupation of the site commenced with the arrival of the chalcolithic folk using short parallel-sided blades of chalcedony, copper objects and wheel-turned pots, mostly plain but well-formed. Although not much is known of the nature of the families and their food habits, some light is thrown on the funerary practices of the inhabitants. They cremated the dead and buried the cinerary vessels along with charred bones in small pits on the banks of the river Thebi. This small settlement was short-lived. It gained its importance under the Kshatrapa rulers and developed into a commercial centre of considerable size. It must have been a highly prosperous town as can be made out from the structural remains and portable finds of indigenous and foreign origin. Further, both Buddhism and Brahmanism flourished side by side here, both having received patronage from the Kshatrapa-Gupta rulers The coins and seals of the Kshatrapa, Gupta and Maitraka rulers found in the excavations established that Amreli was an important administrative centre in the Saurashtra province during all the three dynasties It reached the pinnacle of its prosperity under the Kshatrapa kings who, for a long time, acknowledged the suzerainty of the Gupta emperors, but in the end became independent of them. The latter people who occupied the site in the 1st century B. C. deposited the cinerary vessels in pits surrounded by stones and covered them with rubble. Apparently Amreli was the meeting place of two cultural streams, one practising cremation and the other inhumation. Remains of a Buddhist structure have been traced on the northern fringes of the town, wherefrom a terracotta figure of the Bodhisatva was also discovered along with Kshatrapa coins. Besides the worship of Vishnu, the cults of Shakti and Shiva appear to have been followed by the inhabitants. Thus, it is obvious that various religious sects lived together peacefully at Amreli under the Kshatrapa rulers With the decline of the Kshatrapa kingdom, Amreli lost its importance, while the neighbouring village of Mota Machiala came to prominence. The Gupta coins and Maitraka grants

found at Mota Machiala bear testimony to its importance. Amreli did not, however, cease to exist. It received attention once again under the Maitraka rulers whose copper-plate grants and royal seals have been found here. It was not more than a large village under the Solankis and was finally over run by the Tajikas or Arabs in the 8th century A. D.

They used plain wheel-turned vessels. It must have taken considerable time for them to give up these traditions and degenerate into poor ill-equipped squatters.

The terracotta figurines, pottery and stone objects shell and bone artefacts found in stratified deposits of the excavations have helped in determining the age of analogous finds from the previous excavations. The date arrived at on ceramic and stratigraphic evidence appears to be consistent from the beginning to the end with the date furnished by the coins, inscribed pottery and seals from Amreli. Hence the Red Polished Ware, which occurs throughout period I except in the post-Kshatrapa levels is dated 1st century B. C. to 4th century A. D. The copper plate of the Maitraka king Kharagraha I dated Samvat 297 (616-7 A. D.) mentions Anumanjisthali which is identified with Amreli. Obviously Amreli must have been the headquarters of a *sthali* but the total absence of any important antiquity or structural remains attributable to the Maitraka period may suggest that it was not as important a town as in the days of the Kshatrapas. However, it continued to be occupied upto the end of the 4th century A D.

The *Gohilwad Timbo* is roughly a triangle on plan rising gradually from the banks of the Thebi and the Vadi to a maximum height of 15 ft. The base of the triangle lies along the northern margin of the mound and its apex to the south at the junction of the rivers Thebi and Vadi which form the two sides of the triangle. A shallow depression on the north, which drains off monsoon water, marks the ancient moat connecting the two nullahs which ultimately discharge themselves into the rivers and nullahs on all the sides, excepting for a small gap on the north, was taken advantage of by the builders of the town. This gap was closed by the moat.

An ancient structure of considerable dimensions built on the northern fringe, is indicated by the sudden rise in the height of the mound for about 300 ft. in length. The central part of the triangle is a flat terrace with an abrupt fall towards the east and a gradual one towards the south. The eastern and the western margins of the mound are cut up into miniature mounds by rain gullies which run radially. The general slope of the mound is towards the south. While there is ample evidence of occupation in the central and northern parts it is rather scarce on the west where

modern huts have been built. The Amreli-Vanivadar road running in the north-south direction cuts the mound into two parts. The pre-1945 excavations were confined to an area west of the road. This sector of the mound is cut up into a number of smaller mounds. Most of the important finds of the pre-1945 excavations come from the trenches sunk on in these mounds previously One of the structures noticed was named the "Goldsmiths' Workshop" wherefrom several crucibles, moulds and plaques were obtained Small copper coins can be found even now on these mounds. A large quantity of brickbats, pottery and several undressed stones lying on surface mark off the old cuttings from the rest of the mound. New trenches were sunk here also in the present excavations to ascertain the stratigraphical position of the pre-1945 finds.

The rivers Thebi and Vadi are at present shallow channels almost dry except in the monsoon months, when they inundate the southern tip of the mound. Two thousand years ago they must have been deeper as can be made out from the accumulation of gravel and silt in the flow channels. Chalcedony and agate occurring as veins in trap were used in the Middle and Late Stone Ages and in the chalcolithic period for making lithic implements. Weathered trap forming the black soil of the region is good enough for growing wheat and cotton but not suitable for making ceramic wares of superior quality. Special clay must therefore have been obtained and levigated for making the Red Polished Ware. The coarser wares were, however, made from local clay.

In order to have the continuation of Indus Valley Civilisation, excavations were started by the Archaeological department of the former Baroda State regime, these excavations have helped to throw considerable light over the Amreli antiquities which are ranging for 2nd century B. C. to 4th century A. D. Pottery handles found here speak of the flourishing business relations with the Roman Empire and the grinding stones with Mauryan Polish date back from 2nd B C to 3rd century A. D. This has helped to bring this historical town on the Archaeological Map of India.

PART III

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

POPULATION

Growth of Population—The population of the areas now comprising Amreli district was 317,703 in 1901. In 1961, it rose to 667,823 (rural-525,253, urban-142,570) recording a rise of 110.20 per cent during the last sixty years. As per the 1961 Census, the population increased by 129,298 or 24.01 per cent over the population in 1951 (538,525). Greater increase in population in recent times may be attributed to the general improvement in medical and public health services available to the people since Independence. The decennial growth of population between 1901 and 1961 for the district is given in the statement below:

STATEMENT III.1

Variation in Population, 1901-1961

Year 1	Population 2	Decade variation 3	Percentage decade variation 4
1901	317,703	.	..
1911	341,764	+24,061	+7.57
1921	340,150	—1,614	—0 47
1931	389,124	+48,974	+14.40
1941	469,180	+80,056	+20.57
1951	538,525	+69,345	+14.78
1961	667,823	+129,298	+24.01
1901 to 1961	..	+350,120	+110.20

Source : *District Census Handbook* 1961, Amreli, p. 12.

According to the State Survey Department, the area of the district in 1961 was 6,419.8 sq. kms. or 3 49 per cent of the total area of the State. The density of population thus comes to 104 persons per sq. km. (urban-1,444; rural-83) as against 112 for the State. The urban density is naturally higher than the rural where the pressure of population appears to be comparatively less and the average density is worked out on the basis of the entire area within the revenue limits of the village and not of the village site.

The rural and urban densities differ for different parts of the district as also for its rural and urban areas as will be seen from the table that follows.

STATEMENT III.2

Density of Population, 1961

State/District/Taluka	Total/Rural/Urban	Population Per sq. mile	Population Per sq. km.
1	2	3	4
State	T	**290**	**112**
	R	**218**	**84**
	U	**7,194**	**2,778**
District	*T*	*269*	*104*
	R	*215*	*83*
	U	*3,715*	*1,444*
Amreli	T	373	144
	R	233	90
	U	10,571	4,066
Kunkavav-Vadia	T	299	116
	R	232	89
	U	4,164	1,611
Babra	T	180	70
	R	155	60
	U	4,044	1,555
Lathi	T	292	113
	R	242	94
	U	840	325
Lilia	T	273	105
	R	247	95
	U	4,277	1,645
Dhari	T	207	80
	R	174	67
	U	12,970	4,988
Khambha	R	178	69
Rajula	T	267	103
	R	210	81
	U	5,388	2,095
Jafrabad	T	245	95
	R	192	74
	U	7,622	3,064
Kodinar	T	406	157
	R	347	134
	U	10,769	4,395

Source :

District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli

The highest average density per sq. km. (157) is found in the Kodinar taluka due to the fertile land and existence of the sugar factory and the lowest per sq. km. (69) in the Khambha mahal, due to its hilly terrain. In the rural areas, Kodinar taluka is the densest per sq. km. (134). Among towns, Dhari tops the list with 4,988 persons per sq. km. and Lathi ranks last with 325.

Rural/Urban Distribution—The population figures for the last sixty years indicate a comparatively greater increase in urban population as compared to the rural.

STATEMENT III.3

Urban and Rural Population, 1901-1961

Census year	Urban Population			Rural Population		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1901	65,644	33,515	32,129	252,059	129,198	122,861
1911	62,779	31,904	30,875	278,985	143,135	135,850
1921	61,402	30,955	30,447	278,748	143,338	135,410
1931	71,779	36,041	35,738	317,345	162,778	154,567
1941	84,925	42,653	42,272	384,255	197,196	187,059
1951	111,905	55,709	56,196	426,620	216,971	209,649
1961	142,570	73,444	69,126	525,253	267,179	258,074

Source : Census of India 1961, Gujarat, Vol. V, Part II—A, *General Population Tables*.

From the above statement, it is apparent that during the period from 1901-61, the urban population has increased from 65,644 to 142,570, *i. e.*, 117.19 per cent and the rural population from 252,059 to 525,253, *i. e.*, 108·18 per cent. The major increase is during the decade from 1951 to 1961 presumably because of better medical facilities and hygienic conditions brought about by development programmes under the Five Year Plans.

Rural Population—There are 596 villages in the district of which 1 village is uninhabited. The total rural population of the district is 525,253 giving an average of 883 persons per inhabited village, as against 824 in the State. Percentage distribution of rural population by size-group of villages is given below :

STATEMENT III.4

Percentage Distribution of Rural Population by Size-Group of Villages, 1961

Size group 1		No. of villages 2	Percentage to total No. of villages 3	Rural population 4	Percentage to total rural population 5
Less than 200	.	53	8 91	6,270	1.19
200-499		129	21.68	43,787	8.34
500-999		236	39.66	171,352	32.62
1,000-1,999		133	22.35	181,156	34.49
2,000-4,999	..	42	7 06	110,319	21.00
5,000-9,999	.	2	0.34	12,369	2.36
10,000 and above	.	..	.	..	..

Source :
District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli, p. 13

Of the 595 inhabited villages, 182 or 30·59 per cent fall in the size groups of population below 500, 369 or 62.01 per cent in the size-groups of 500-999 and 1,000-1,999 and only 7·40 per cent are large size villages of population 2,000 and above There is concentration of rural population in small or medium size villages. 133 villages or 22.35 per cent in the size-group 1,000-1,999 and only 44 villages or 7·40 per cent are large size villages of population 2,000 and above.

Urban Population—Statement III.5 that follows gives the number of towns classified by population.

STATEMENT III.5

Towns Classified by Size-groups, 1901-1961

	I		II		III		IV		V		VI	
	100,000 and above		50,000 to 99,999		20,000 to 49,999		10,000 to 19,999		5,000 to 9,999		Below 5,000	
Year	No of towns	Popu-lation	No. of towns	Popu-lation	No. of towns	Popu-lation	No. of towns	Popu-lation	No of towns	Popu-lation	No of towns	Popu-lation
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1961 ..	..	..	..	.	1	34,699	5	62,389	5	36,880	2	8,602
1951 ..	..	..	..	..	1	27,826	1	12,817	10	72,288	1	4,834
1941 ..	..	..	..		1	25,485		..	7	51,251	3	10,915
1931 ..	.	..	..	..	1	20,186	..	.	7	45,181	2	6,412
1921 ..	..	..	..	..	.	..	1	17,793	4	24,581	5	19,028
1911 .	..	.	..	..	..	..	1	17,443	5	31,122	4	14,214
1901 .	..		..	..	..	..	1	17,997	5	33,027	4	14,620

Source :
District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli, p. 13.

From the statement, it appears that during the past 60 years, there has not been any appreciable increase in the growth of towns as the number has increased from 10 to 13 only. The existing towns are either headquarters of talukas or centres of some industry. Among 10 talukas/mahals, Chital (Amreli), Bagasara and Vadia (Kunkavav) and Dungar (Rajula) are towns which are not headquarters of talukas/mahals; but connected with some industry. In Khambha mahal, there is no town at all. The urban population of 142,570 persons is spread over these 13 towns of different sizes There are no towns in district under class I and II, while there is only Amreli town in class III and has population over 30,000 in the size-group of 20,000 to 49,999 The rest fall under class IV, V and VI having population below 20,000. The average population of a town in the district is only 10,967 as compared to 30,380 for the State. The proportion of urban population in the district is less than that obtaining in the State.

Population of Towns

Name of town	Persons	Males	Females
Amreli	34,699	18,064	16,635
Chital	7,583	3,867	3,716
Vadia	6,743	3,477	3,266
Bagasara	15,325	7,774	7,551
Babra	8,088	4,136	3,952
Lathi	10,022	5,183	4,839
Damnagar	6,499	3,327	3,172
Lilia	4,277	2,165	2,112
Dhari	12,970	6,838	6,132
Rajula	12,646	6,473	6,173
Dungar	4,325	2,227	2,098
Jafrabad	7,967	3,947	4,020
Kodinar	11,426	5,966	5,460

Source :

District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli

Displaced Persons—As a result of the partition of the country in 1947, some Muslim families migrated to Pakistan, but some families migrated from Pakistan to this district. The total number of such migrants to the district according to the 1961 Census was 309 (199 males, 110 females) of whom 195

have settled in urban areas and 114 in rural areas. The Government extended various facilities to rehabilitate them by giving them financial and other facilities which included technical and vocational training, special priorities in recruitment to public services and loans to settle in petty business or trade.

Sex-Ratio—According to the 1961 Census, the number of females per 1,000 males was 961 which was higher than the similar ratio of 940 for the State. The proportion of females was comparatively less in towns (941) than in villages (966). The sex-ratio for Amreli (921), Vadia (939), Lathi (934) and Kodinar (915) is lower than the district average of 961, due to industrial, commercial and agricultural development of these places leading to the concentration of the male population in these areas. On the other hand, Jafrabad is the place which recorded more females (1,018 per 1,000 males) than males, mainly due to the absence of the male members who go out to sea as sailors and return home at long intervals.

Birth Place and Migration—The 1961 Census recorded that 135,023 persons, (20.22 per cent of the population) were born elsewhere within the district 11·26 per cent outside the district but within the State and 1·08 per cent outside the State. There has been a general tendency among the village people to go to nearby towns to earn their livelihood. Sex-wise distribution of migrants shows that 10·66 per cent of the male population and 30·17 per cent of the female population were born elsewhere but within the district and 6·52 per cent of the male and 16 19 per cent of the female population were born outside the district. The high percentage of female migrants is due to marriage migrations resulting from girls leaving their parental homes after marriages. The persons who migrated from Pakistan numbered 864.

STATEMENT III.6

Population by Place of Birth, 1961

Persons/Males/Females	Total population	Born in: Places of enumeration	Elsewhere in the district	Outside the district but in the State	Outside the State
1	2	3	4	5	6
Persons ...	667,823	450,409	135,023	75,191	7,200
Males	340,623	278,176	36,314	22,205	3,928
Females .	327,200	172,233	98,709	52,986	3,272
Percentages					
Persons	100 00	67 44	20 22	11.26	1 08
Males .	100.00	81.67	10.66	6.52	1 15
Females ...	100.00	52 64	30.17	16.19	1.00

Source :

District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli, p. 14.

Marital Status—According to 1961 Census, 275,576 persons in the district were married, of whom 134,721 were males and 140,855 females. Persons who were not married accounted for 349,351 of the total population, males being 57·36 per cent and females 47·06 per cent of their respective population. The widowed persons were 6·26 per cent and the divorced or separated 0·16 per cent only. The following statement gives the percentage distribution of males and females by age and marital status.

STATEMENT III.7

Percentage Distribution of Population by Age, Sex and Marital Status

Age-group	Never married		Married		Widowed, Divorced or Separated	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total	57.36	47.06	39.55	43 05	3 09	9 89
0—9	100.00	100 00	.			..
10–14	99 45	98 07	0 55	1 91	..	0 02
15—19	85 21	40 38	14 69	59 39	0 10	0 23
20–24	33 48	2.88	65 66	95 89	0 86	1 23
25–29	14 57	0 64	83 89	96 93	1 54	2 43
30	2 92	0 58	87 37	69 05	9 71	30 37

Source :

District Census Handbook 1961. Amreli, p. 16.

The statement given above reveals that child and infant marriages have very nearly disappeared in the district inasmuch as only 0·55 per cent males and 1·91 per cent females of the age-group 10-14 years are returned as married in 1961. Among males, the age of marriage has risen to 20 years and above, as only 14·69 per cent of males in the age-group 15-19 years were returned as married. In the case of females, the marriageable age has gone well over 15 as disclosed by the fact that in 1961, 59·39 per cent of females in the age-group 15-19 years and 95·98 per cent in the age-group of 20-24 years were married. While 30·37 per cent of females of more than 30 years were widowed, divorced or separated, the similar percentage for males was 9·71 per cent only. These data reveal a state of society wherein women do not remarry, while males do.

LANGUAGE

Gujarati is the mother-tongue of 98·34 per cent of the population of the district. The 1961 Census recorded 656,723 persons as Gujarati-speaking. Speakers of the other main languages included Urdu (7,640), Marathi (1,098), Sindhi (771), Hindi (665) and Kachchhi (588). The number of speakers of other languages is insignificant. . The Gujarati script used universally by the speakers of that tongue is very much akin to the *devnagari* script but unlike the *devnagari* script, it is written without the line overhead.

Bilingualism—The total number of persons speaking a language subsidiary to their mother-tongue were 18,383 or 2·75 per cent, who have returned between themselves as many as 27 languages as subsidiary languages. The most important among them are Hindi (9,459), Gujarati (2,048), English (3,330) and Urdu (690), followed by Marathi (141), Sanskrit (141), and Arabic/Arbi (120). Balochi/Baluchi claims the highest number of bilingual speakers (34) of whom all are claimed by Gujarati. For persons with Bengali and Afghani/Kabuli/Pakhto/Pushto/Pathani as their mother-tongue, the most important subsidiary language was Hindi and Arabic/Arbi respectively.

Further, Gujarati, being the predominant mother-tongue of the district, naturally claims the highest number also among its speakers as a subsidiary language, as it would obviously be the medium of communication with the local people by those whose mother-tongue is non-Gujarati.

Language and Script—As stated earlier, 98·34 per cent of the district population had Gujarati as their mother-tongue according to the 1961 Census.

Gujarati is one of the major languages of the Indo-Aryan family, and is derived, like other languages of the group, from Sanskrit. Its history dates back to about one thousand years. The great scholar, Acharya Hemchandra (1087-1174 A. D.), who was a distinguished member of the court of the Chalukya Kings, Siddharaj and Kumarpal of Patan, has in his 'Prakrit Grammar' given numerous quotations from contemporary literature which can easily be regarded as specimen of the oldest Gujarati literature.[1]

The progress of Gujarati language since the time of Acharya Hemchandra to the present day can be divided according to the late Keshavlal

1. SANDESARA, B. J., (DR.), Article on *Origin and Evolution of Language*, published in the *Souvenir of the 66th Session of the Indian National Congress*, held at Bhavnagar, in 1961, p. 191.

Dhruva into three periods, *viz.*, the first period from the tenth or eleventh century to the fourteenth, the second period from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century and the third period from the eighteenth century to the present times. The language of the first period may be called Apabhramsa or the 'ancient Gujarati'; that of the second period which is generally known as 'the old Gujarati', may be called 'mediaeval Gujarati', and that of the third period may be obviously called the modern Gujarati.[1]

The Gujarati vocabulary consists mostly of Sanskrit *tatsama* or *tadbhava* words. However, on account of the historical and social reasons, and contacts with foreigners due to its extensive sea-coast, it has absorbed words not only from Persian, Arabic, Turkish, Portuguese, English and other foreign languages, but also occasionally from the Dravidian languages of South India. There are in the Gujarati language, hundreds of archaic words of unknown origin called *deshya* which suggest contacts with diverse cultures of many races. But all these contacts reflected in the vocabulary have had no appreciable impact on the formation of the Gujarati language, which has acquired its structure from Sanskrit through Prakrit and Apabhramsa. In the course of its historical development, its structure had already taken a definite shape, form and content before the commencement of the modern period.[2] Having regard to the distribution of the different linguistic features, it appears that the innovating areas in the last two or three hundred years have been the regions round about Ahmedabad which was the centre of socio-economic growth and political capital, whereas the earlier innovating areas were in Saurashtra which was then the focal point of culture. Some earlier innovations from Saurashtra spread over the whole Gujarati-speaking community, which indicate that some dialect of Saurashtra was at one time a prestige or standard dialect.[3]

All language communities contain areas of varying degrees of speech variation. The speech of one region having the seat of power or a religious, cultural or commercial centre spreads at the cost of other speech forms. Thus occur dialectal diffusions and language growth.

The Gujarati language has dialects or *boli* which are only the spoken variants of speech, which include *Charotari*, *Surati*, *Kathiawadi*, etc. A slight local variation in speech and accent is, however, found in different parts of the district or in different communities which retain special

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1. Presidential address by Shri Keshavlal Dhruva in the Second Session of Gujarati Sahitya Parishad held at Bombay in 1907.
2. SANDESARA, B J., (DR.), Article on *Origin and Evolution of Language*, published in the *Souvenir of the 66th Session of the Indian National Congress*, held at Bhavnagar in 1961, p. 191.
3. PANDIT, P. B. (PROF.), Article on the *Language and Dialects*, published in the *Souvenir of the 66th Session of the Indian National Congress*, held at Bhavnagar in 1961, p. 201.

features of their own. This has been reflected in the proverb : "બાર ગાઉએ બોલી બદલાય "- *i. e.*, the dialect changes every twelve *gau* (38.62 kms.). Besides Gujarati, the other important languages spoken by the people in this district include Urdu (1·14 per cent), Marathi (0·16 per cent), Sindhi (0·12 per cent), Hindi (0·10 per cent), and Kachchhi (0·09 per cent). The language spoken by the people of this district does not differ much from the standard Gujarati. Moreover, the impact of facilities for transport, diversification of occupations and urge for advancement in education, business and science has contributed much to stabilise the different dialects in the standard Gujarati. However, a standard language is not a completely stabilised language. It is exposed to the changes in the dialects; which contribute to the evolution of the standard language.

The dialects of Amreli district reflect most of the features of the *Saurashtri* (सौराष्ट्र) dialect. Three different linguistic groups may be marked out from among the people of the various parts of this district as under :

1. The Gir area,

2. The Nagher area and

3. The coastal area.

1. *The Gir Area* (गीर प्रदेश) .—Coveıs the region between Amreli and Dhari talukas. It also includes the area of Babariavad (बाबरियावाड) and Kharapat (खारापाट). The following inhabitants of this area are Kathis (काठी), Rabaris (रबारी) and Ahirs or Ayers (आहिर या आयर). The following peculiarities can be marked in the dialect of this region :

(a) Haplology— રહેતો — રૈ'તો
ગયો છે — ગ્યો

(b) Metathesis—દેવતા — દેતવા

(c) Prothesis— નિદ્રા — નિંદર
ઈન્દ્ર — ઈંદર
ગિરનાર — ગરનાર
ફિકર — ફકર
સ્ત્રી — અસ્ત્રી

(d) Anaptyxix— વાગ્યુ — વાગિયું
નિકળ્યો — નિકળિયો : —નિહર્યો
ધર્મ — ધરમ

(e) Plural is expressed sometimes by the suffix उ or वु—

e.g., બંધૂકો — બંધુકું
ખબર — ખબરું — ખબરૂં
અમલદારો — અમલદારું
છૂટી - છૂટિયું : સૂટિયું
બાઈ — બાઈયું : બાયડિયું

Kathis use such type of plurals : રજપૂત — રજપૂતી
રબારી — રબારા
ભરવાડ — ભરવાડાં

(f) There are certain words of common peculiar usage :

છીએ — સીએ : ઘોડે
થવું — થાવું : વાંહે
: મોર
: રાંધ્યા — હંધ્યા — હંધાય
: અટાણે — વગેરે

(2) *The Nagher Area* (नाघेर)—The real Nagher region is situated in the Junagadh district However, some of the Nagher villages like Nageshri (नागेश्री) of Jafrabad taluka fall within this district. The dialectical peculiarities of this area are set out below :

(a) ત્યાં – તિયાં
અહિં — આંઈ — આંઈકણે

(b) Imperative mood is expressed sometimes by the addition of suffix 'य'.

e.g., મૂક — મૂક્ય
મનાવ — મનાવ્ય
(also— જાવ્ય, ભાગ્ય)

(c) Dissimilation— ભાઠણી — ભાયણી
દળાણું — દયાણું

(d) In lieu of 'મળે છે;' they say 'જડે છે.'

(e) In the past participle, "યુ" is used

e.g., બોલાણું — બોલાયું
લખાણું — લખાયું

(f) Some words are used peculiarly,

e.g., શું કામ — હું કામ
શું કરવા — હું કરવા
શું છે — હું સે
ત્યાં — ઉવાં
કળશ્યો — કળશિયો

(3) *The Coastal Area*—Saurashtra has an extensive sea-coast. The *dialects of Saurashtra owe much to their sons of the sea. Sailors and fishermen play an important role in the life of the people of the district.* They have brought a number of alien words, idioms and usages in the local language. The sailors generally known as *Kharvas* (ખારવા) of Jafrabad and Kodinar talukas have their own peculiar dialect. Rapidity and harshness are two prominent characteristics of their dialect. One can smell the marshy wind in their speech. Though their dialect is mostly the same as that of the sailors of other parts of Gujarat, they have developed certain local usages, *e. g.*,

(a) Use of future tense— જઈશ — જાશ

ખાઈશ — ખાશ

(b) Use of pronouns— મેં — હું — મીં

(c) ધ્રૂજે — ધરૂંજે, ધીરે — ધરે

અદા, ડોહા, ઓલ્યું, આણી કોર્ય, ધોડયો

(d) Use of 'ર' in place of 'ળ' (sometimes)—
કળ — નિકર

Among the local dialects, the main peculiarities of the Saurashtra region are common, as will be seen from below :

(a) Use of 'હ' in place of 'સ'

e. g., સાવજ — હાવજ
સાસુ — હાહુ

(b) "સ" in place of "ચ" and "છ"

ચાનક ચડી — સાનક સડી
ચુંદડી — સુંદડી
છાનોમાનો — સાનો માનો
છોડી — સોડી

(c) Frequent use of "ઈ"

e. g., ઈ તો એમ સે,
ઈવડો ઈ,
ઈ પછી.

Thus, it is noticed that although the standard Gujarati remains the language of the district, it is influenced by the dialectal differences of the Saurashtra region, in which it is embedded.

RELIGION

The district has a predominant Hindu population. The 1961 Census shows that as many as 622,091 or 93·15 per cent of the total population of the district were Hindus, Muslims numbered 38,975 (5·84 per cent), Jains 5,979 (0·90 per cent), Christians 734 and Sikhs 18. Among others 17 were Buddhists and 9 follow other religions and persuasions.

The following is the rural-urban distribution of the population under various religions distributed by sex.

STATEMENT III.8

Distribution of Population by Religion

Religion	Rural and Urban	Males	Females
Hindus ...	R	257,691	248,835
	U	59,914	55,651
Muslims ...	R	8,404	8,074
	U	11,249	11,248
Jains ...	R	1,071	1,152
	U	1,551	2,205
Christians ...	R	2	4
	U	714	14
Sikhs ...	R	8	2
	U	6	2
Buddhists ...	R	3	7
	U	4	3
Other Religions and Persuasions	R	.	..
	U	6	3

Source : *District Census Handbook* 1961, Amreli, p. 124.

Hinduism—Though the influence of castes is tending to diminish appreciably with the spread of modern education, the religious life of the orthodox Hindu is mainly governed by custom and tradition and the particular sect to which he belongs The Brahmins are the followers of Shiva and almost all have household gods whose worship some members of the family must perform every day. Brahmins are expected to perform *sandhya* (twilight prayer) at least once a day in the morning, and repeat *Gayatri* or Sun hymn. Generally, the Banias are Vaishnavas, staunch adherents of Vallabhacharya, who propounded the *Bhakti* cult, the worship of Krishna by intense devotion. Instead of the sacred thread, both men and women wear round their neck a *kanthi* of small basil or *tulsi* (*ocimum-basilicum*) beads. The Rajputs, though partial to the worship of Shiva, are equally devoted to Shakti, the mother goddess. The agricultural and artisan castes are all god-fearing people who worship some or the other deity of the Hindu pantheon Rama, Krishna, Mataji

or mother goddess in her numerous forms, Hanuman, etc. Beliefs in sorcerers, witches, the evil eye and bad omens still prevail but are on the whole dying out.

Shaivism—The main doctrine of Shaivism is the existence of one universal soul or *advaita* and of the individual soul or *jeevatma*. Adherents of Shaivism worship the deity under the name of Rudra, Shiva, Sadashiva, Shankara, Shambhu, Mahadeva, Neelkantha, etc., in their own houses, as also in the temples which are to be found in almost every village, town or city in this district. They use a transversed streak of three lines called *tripunda* on their forehead as a religious mark and use *rudraksha* rosary.

The Shiva worship has continued from the earliest times to be the cult of the Brahmins, though this deity is equally favourite with all other castes except the Vaishnavas and the Jains. Towards the close of the eighth century the Shiva worship was extended and popularised by Adya Shankaracharya. He established in India four *mathas*[1] or monasteries where he appointed his four principal disciples as *acharyas* who were in their turn succeeded by their pupils to this day. The first head of this monastery was Mandanmishra, the famous *pundit* whom Shankaracharya had defeated in philosophical polemics and who had taken *sanyasta* under the name Sureshwaracharya. The present Shankaracharya, Shri Abhinav Sadchidanand Tirth, is the 77th in the line. The Shankaracharya of Dwarka wields great influence over the Hindus in all parts of the western India. He goes about from place to place within his jurisdiction preaching and disseminating the doctrine of the Vedic religion. His is the gospel word in all religious matters affecting the followers of the Shaivism in Gujarat.

Vaishnavism—Vishnu is the god of preservation and universal prosperity. The various incarnations or *avtaras* of Vishnu literally mean his descent to earth for the good of gods and men. Of these, Rama, the seventh incarnation and Krishna, the eighth incarnation are most revered. Among the worshippers of Rama the chief are Ramanujis, Ramanandis and Ramasnehis, though he is also worshipped by the followers of other creeds. Vaishnavism prevalent in this district is the *pushti marg* or creed of spiritual nourishment founded by Vishnu Swami and propagated by Shri Vallabhacharya. The philosophic doctrine it propounds is termed *shuddhaadvaita* as distinguished from the *kevaladvaita* of Shankaracharya and *vishishtadvaita* of Ramanuj. It teaches that god, though eternal

1. These four *mathas* are (i) Badrikedar (U.P.) in the extreme north, (ii) Rameshvar (Tamil Nadu) in the extreme south, (iii) Jagannathpuri (Orissa) in the east and (iv) Dwarka (Gujarat) in the west.

is endowed with celestial form and all visible phenomena emanate from him. Building on this philosophical basis, Shri Vallabhacharya introduced employment in pleasure and divine worship, rejecting the austerity and hardship of other sects Such epicurean principles began to assume unseemly forms which caused comments and criticism from various quarters and led to the appearance of such reformist sects as the Swami-narayan founded early in the 19th century by Shri Sahajanand Swami (1781-1829) which has a large following all over Gujarat.

Swaminarayan Sect[1]—Vaishnavite Sect called the Swaminarayan was founded during the early decades of the nineteenth century by Sahajanand, well-known as Swami Narayan who tried to deliver Vaishanavism of those days from some of its corrupting influences. The sect, which is named after its founder, possesses a large following all over Gujarat drawn from all classes of people irrespective of their original creed. Gadhada in Bhavnagar district is one of the important centres where the founder spent most of his time and propagated his religious teachings.

The founder, the great Hindu reformer, Sahajanand Swami, was born at Chhapaia, near Ayodhaya in 1781 A. D. From infancy he showed a sort of aversion to leading a wordly life and evinced great regard for the study of the *shastras*. On the death of his parents, when he was aged eleven, he renounced the world and left his house in the garb of an ascetic. For nearly eight years he practised severe penance and visited various centres of pilgrimage in India. At this time he was known as Nilkantha Brahmachari. In 1800 A. D. he travelled over to Loj in Junagadh District in search of a suitable *guru*, where he met Swami Ramanand who initiated him in his quest of the Supreme Being. By the force of his exemplary character and attainments, and life of intense asceticism he endeared himself to his spiritual guide who appointed him *acharya* or head of his followers before his death in 1801. Nilkantha Brahmachari was then renamed Sahajanand Swami. Popularly known as Swami Narayan, he made Gujarat and Kathiawar the field of his religious reforms which he carried out with great vigour and energy. Though the religious doctrines preached by him were in no way distinct from those preached by the Vaishnavite Hinduism, his criticism of the immoral practices of the day, and advocacy of a life of purity and piety evoked much opposition. But Sahajanand carried out his holy mission with unique success, which greatly increased the numerical strength of his proselytes. He advised the worship of and faith in one god who was Krishna who alone could deliver the soul from the fetters of the body. The real value of his work as a

1. TRIVEDI R. K., *Bhavnagar State Census* 1931, Part 1, *Report*, pp. 252-256.

reformer lies in his throwing open the portals of his discipleship to all strata of society irrespective of their caste or creed. Hindus and Muhammadans, higher and lower castes, worshipped god under the spiritual guidance of Swami Narayan. The civilizing influence of the sect in reclaiming to the path of virtue, honesty and truth on those turbulent castes like the Kathis, Kolis and other weaker sections and subduing their predatory and blackmailing activities converting them as loyal citizens of the State was profound.

Realising the necessity of creating suitable centres from where the preaching could be conveniently carried out, three great shrines of beautiful architecture were built on sites that were extremely well-chosen at Ahmedabad, Vadtal in Kaira district and Gadhada in Bhavnagar district.

Swami Narayan recognised the stages of spiritual development by creating different orders, *viz.*, (i) for the ecclesiastics and (ii) for the laity. He also created a class of nuns who are styled *sankhyayoginis* or female devotees.

Doctrine and Philosophy of the Sect—The first and foremost amongst the works of the sect is the Shikshapatri or Code of Moral Instructions containing two hundred and twelve verses written in Sanskrit for the various classes of devotees. It aims not only at the moral and spiritual reformation of the adherents, but also gives practical advice for the conduct of the individual in his daily life.

On the philosophic side, Swaminarayan sect has adopted the *vishistadvaita* or qualified *advaita* doctrine of Ramanujacharya and on the ritualistic side it has taken a leaf from the *pushtimarg* of Vallabhacharya in the form of the worship of Shri Krishna. The Vachanamruta giving the encyclical communications of Sahajanand Swami to his disciples is an excellent work in simple Gujarati embodying the sayings of the saint who himself had experienced the spiritual knowledge which alone enables a man to understand the Supreme Being, Lord Krishna. He struck at the very root of impure associations by ordering separate temples and congregation of females, and thus administered a wholesome check to those immoral practices which he had seen in other sister sects which allowed free association of the sexes. He died in the year 1830 at the age of 49.

Jainism—Jainism preches *tapa* or austerity, control of the mind and passions, *ahimsa* and renunciation of all wordly pleasures and attachments to attain *moksha* or liberation. Jains worship the images of all the 24 *tirthankaras* in their temples wherein are also found images of Hindu gods and goddesses in some side niches, at times under different names.

The Jainism has two major divisions, *viz.*, Shwetamber and Digamber The Shwetamber monks put on white clothes and the Digamber monks, move in a nude condition, having directions as their clothes. The major point of difference between the two divisions is whether the injunction to renounce all wordly possessions for achieving salvation should be carried to the extreme by dispensing even with clothes and practising nudity.

Islam—The chief articles of Islamic faith are belief in the unity of God, in His Angels, in His books, in His prophets, in His Government of the world, in good and evil as coming from Him, and in the day of Resurrection.

Muslims in the district constitute a little over six per cent of the total population according to the Census of 1961. The Muslims are divided into two sects, *viz*., Sunnis and Shiahs. The former are more common than the latter. The group of Shiahs known as Ismailis or Agakhanis, whose Imam or religious head is His Highness the Aga Khan, is also found among the Khoja community in the district.

Castes

As stated in the Gita, the four *varnas* or castes were formed according to birth and actions.[1] The castes were ranked in a hierarchial order in ritual purity. The four castes in order were Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra. They were mainly regulated by the concepts of purity and pollution. It was usually segmented into several sub-castes. It was an endogamous unit of society. Each caste pursued a common occupation or a few common occupations and was the unit of social and ritual life. The members of the caste ate food cooked by each other, shared a common culture and in most cases were governed by the caste panchayat. The Brahmins were the custodians and interpreters of the Hindu religion and traditions. Their presence was essential at all rituals and ceremonies. The Kshatriyas were expected to protect the remaining three *varnas*. The Vaishyas devoted themselves to business, commerce and agriculture, as their main function was production. Lastly, the Shudras were expected to serve the members of the upper three classes in various capacities.

The caste system was, however, subject to two limitations : first, marriage and second, social contacts at meals. The caste member could marry only a member of his caste. The second limitation was related to

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1. Gita: चातुर्वर्ण्यं मया सृष्टं गुणकर्मविभागशः ।
तस्य कर्तारमपि मां विद्धयकर्तारमव्ययम् ॥ १३॥
અધ્યાય—૪, કર્મબ્રહ્માર્પણયોગ, શ્લોક—૧૩.

physical contacts especially at meal time or on occasion of physical contact with the members of the lower castes, or the objects handled by the lower castes. These were the strictures of the caste system. Control on use of land, which formed the only source of income and wealth, gave domination to the caste, which held it. Land owners, therefore, dominated and controlled social and economic behaviour and attitudes of the lower castes.

Castes in India were a great stronghold, not only for the social groups but also for the village crafts. They served in this respect as a small industrial guild.

With particular caste, a particular religion came to be associated. Brahmins naturally followed Shaivism, Banias followed Vaishnavism, the other castes followed the religious sects of Kabir and Ramanuj and goddesses like Kalika and Amba. This is not to urge that these gods and goddesses were not worshipped by the higher castes of Brahmins and Banias.

This system was governed by the rules of the caste panchayat in the villages. The Hindu and Muslim political leaders accepted decisions of caste leaders as laws. In the villages, the writ of the caste panchayat ran in a group of villages. Thus, the caste rules were considered sacrosanct and stringent. Any violation of the decision or the order of the caste panchayat was visited by the pains and penalties leviable under the rules of the caste. The caste functioned best in the static society. With all its limitations, it provided the frame-work for stability of village customs and life.

In these circumstances, a sociologist would define caste as hereditary, endogamous usually localised group having a traditional association with an occupation and a particular position in the local hierarchy of castes.

Caste System under the British Influence—Before the advent of the British rule, the caste system did not under-go any radical changes. But under the British influence, the viability of the caste system was gradually undermined on account of certain measures adopted by them. Firstly, the British did not accept the caste decisions as the basis of law and outlawed certain social practices. Secondly, they established their own administration and civil and criminal courts which were thrown open to all castes for appeal against the caste decisions. Thirdly, opportunities for making livelihood from resources other than land were made possible by peace under the British rule and increase of

transport facilities, widening of markets and commercialisation of agriculture. The new sources of income enabled lower castes to acquire ownership of land. Fourthly, with the increase of population, the earstwhile waste lands were occupied and new opportunities were available not only on the land but in cities and factories also Fifthly, the western education and new laws regarded all men equal. With the improvement in their economic condition, the unclean castes (Shudras) were less willing to remain in their low status with the result that many broke caste rules.

Under the British, caste was made a criterion for acquiring certain rights and privileges. It, therefore, became imperative to promote caste's interest by association with Government. For this purpose, caste associations were formed to direct and further caste interests in a group of villages for promoting education and providing employment.

Although Amreli was under the Baroda State, it could not shut out the winds of change blowing over the adjacent Saurashtra areas. Further the Baroda State had adopted several laws of the British India affecting the caste system.

Caste after Independence—The process of loosening the bonds of the caste system had already begun during the British period. The social and legal forces after Independence accelerated this process In the social sphere in the urban areas, the caste is now being increasingly replaced by class relationship In rural areas, the caste system has not lost all its rigours. There is no clean break between the caste system in rural areas and classes in the urban areas. There is, however, rural-urban continuum which influences the urban life and *vice-versa*. Although opportunities for intercaste marriages have increased, marriages are still, by and large, solemnised within the caste and within the same village, if possible. This restriction on marriage still retains the element of the caste system even in urban areas.

In economic sphere, the protection of traditional castes has gone. Under British rule, the Brahmins with their education and financial resources took advantage of opportunities in Government service and allied professions, but they rarely entered business. Now, the position is entirely changed. There is no bar or taboo for any member of any caste to enter into or take to any profession. The concept of a hereditary profession followed from father to son has lost its relevance in the diversification of professions under the economic compulsions.

In the urban areas, the importance of an individual has shifted from membership of a caste to his own function and achievement in some area

of urban life. Economic and political interests as a member of a class even override the influence of caste and communal attitudes. The middle and working classes, which arose under the British influence, have acquired economic and political influences after Independence. Among the main reasons for this breakdown of the caste system may be listed higher education, increase in means of transport, social mobility, diversification of professions and urban cosmopolitanism. The ideas of purity among certain casts have undergone change and the ideas of population have weakened both in the rural and urban areas.

In this transformation, political and developmental factors have revived and strengthened the basis of the caste system. Among the political factors may be listed the grant of adult franchise, Constitutional safeguards for backward clasess and introduction of the Panchayati Raj. Under these three factors, the caste has assumed political functions. Broadly speaking, under the adult franchise and Panchayati Raj, caste restrictions have diminished but caste identifications have increased. For all types of elections from the village level to the Parliament level, caste groups are sought after for votes and votes are cast in favour of candidates in return for some favour.

Under the impact of the Five Year Plans, the caste has assumed economic functions. The diversification of occupations has been accelerated faster and opportunities of gainful employment have increased. There has been increase of economic and social contacts in offices and factories. Restrictions on interdining have practically gone due to the working in the factories and movement in railways and other means of transport. In exercise of its economic functions, there is a tendency for a specialised staff in a factory or a textile mill to become a monopoly of a particular caste or a regional group. Since the development programmes aim at an egalitarian society, the structure, the strictures and the sanctions of the caste system are greatly in the process of disintegration. The dominant castes of to-day are the products of the historical process and occupy strategic positions in Government and industries. The occupational homogeneity of the past has broken down. The caste consciousness and organisation have increased in exercise of its political functions. Under the economic and political compulsions, perhaps the castes were never so close, strong and well-knit as they are to-day.

The Present Position of Castes—The main communities in the district are Hindus and Muslims. Among the Hindus, Brahmins, Dasa and Visa Shrimali Banias, Kapol Banias, Modh Banias, Bhatias, Lohanas, Leva and Kadva Kanbis, Kathis, Ahirs, Karadia Rajputs, Kolis, Kumbhars and Vagharis are the chief castes. The Kharvas are a caste by themselves. Among

the cultivating classes may be counted Kanbis, Kathis. Kolis, Karadia Rajputs and Ahirs. Among Muslims, Memans, Khojas and Vohras are the main castes.

In the changing social order, the Brahmins have lost their influence which they had in the caste hierarchy before. As the traditional professions are not paying, they have taken to mainly teaching and other professions particularly service in Government and semi-Government organisations. Some also continue to perform priestly duties along with their new avocations

As a commercial community, the Banias predominate in towns and villages. They work primarily as businessmen Some own oil mills in Amreli and the taluka towns. Because of their business of money-lending, the Kapol and Jain Banias had substantial land holdings in towns and villages But after enforcement of the tenancy legislation, they have lost ownership over their lands, which now have gone to the actual tillers of the soil. They have, therefore, ceased to be landholders and have concentrated their activities in trade and commerce Besides business, they work as commission agents in town and big villages It is gathered that well-to-do Kapol Banias and Jain Banias have left the district and taluka towns and gone to the big cities like Bombay, Calcutta, Jamshedpur, etc., for business and have amassed good fortune. They have given large donations to public and private educational institutions in the district as well as for religious endowments and communal buildings. Bhatias are a small community and are doing mainly cloth-business In Amreli, 75 per cent of the cloth business is in their hands.

The Lohanas are mainly found in towns and big villages of Amreli, Babra and Kodinar talukas They have no *locus standi* in the rural areas. They are businessmen and some are commission agents. Some also own a few oil mills They were doing money-lending before in the Kodinar taluka, and were large landholders, but owing to enforcement of laws regulating money-lending and tenancy and with the improvement of the economic condition of the Karadia Rajputs, they (Lohanas) have lost their former prestige and influence over the rural population of the Kodinar taluka and are no more landholders.

Concentration of the Kathis is found in the talukas of Amreli, Babra, Lathi and Rajula and Jafrabad mahal. Next to Kanbis, Kathis are landholders in the district. Besides agriculture, they are serving in the Police Department and in villages as *chokidars* and very few in the Defence Department They form 5 to 7 per cent of the population. Although

they are deprived of the former political power after integration of the States, they still exercise powerful influence in the rural areas.

The population of Rajputs is not very significant, but a mention needs to be made about the Karadia Rajputs, who are mainly found in the Kodinar taluka. Their main profession is agriculture and allied pursuits. Their economic condition has improved considerably after establishment of the sugar factory at Kodinar. Not only have they become main land-owners but they possess all the modern equipments like oil-engines and electric pump-sets, tractors and improved agricultural implements and modern gadgets like transistors, terylene, etc. They have made much leeway in education of their children. They have built their boarding houses in Kodinar and Veraval. They have recently started the education trust for facilitating high school and college studies. The economic advancement of the Karadia Rajputs has thrown the Lohanas in the background.

Among cultivators, the Leva Kanbis stand first in the district. They are spread over the entire district. The Kadva Kanbis are very few in this district. With substantial landholdings and with technical and financial assistance from Government, Co-operative Banks and Land Mortgage Banks, they have become prosperous and have emerged as a politically powerful community in the village, taluka and district Panchayats in the Panchayati Raj. The land ownership is still a source of power and wealth in the district.

In the former Baroda State, owing to compulsory primary education from 1900 and liberal educational policy and other self-Government institutions, the Kanbis of the former Amreli district are far more advanced than the Kanbis of other ditsricts of Saurashtra They follow the Vaishnava and Swaminarayan religions Their marriage customs generally resemble those of Kapol Banias. Their sons are getting high school and college education for the last 30 years, and recently they are going to America and Europe for higher studies. Among them, caste distinction has disappeared. They are making wonderful progress in agriculture. They have taken to the modern agricultural implements and by the proper use of fertilisers, they are raising double crops.

The Koli Kharvas of Jafrabad are a peculiar community inhabiting the Jafrabad mahal They eke out their livelihood by sea-faring, fishing and casual labour. The characteristic feature of their marriages is that they are performed *en masse* during monsoon when they are free. Secondly, when any Kharva is drowned in the sea and his body is not traced, his effigy is burnt to complete the death ceremonies. The Kharvas, who were mostly labourers before, have after the formation of the Jafrabad Machhimar Sahakari Mandali, built *pucca* houses and possess wrist-watches, radios, gold ornaments, etc. Education has spread even among

their girls. Their social customs have undergone drastic changes. The Kharva Panch is powerful and has stopped marriage feasts and the use of liquor on social occasions. With the spread of education and improvement in economic condition, there is diversification of occupations. Some of them have opened grain-stores, medical stores and hotels.

Among herdsmen, fall the Rabaris, Ahirs and Bharvads. Ahirs are mainly found in Rajula, Babra and Kodinar talukas. Their main occupation is cattle-breeding and cultivation. The Bharvads are mainly found in the Amreli and Dhari talukas and Lilia mahal. They make a living by selling milk and *mavo* of goats and sheep. They have their own sheep and goats and sell wool. Bharvads are a remarkably honest people and their women are shrewd and manage competently their household and milk business. Men and women have preserved their dress and social customs. Of all the castes, they deserve great merit. Men and women are god-fearing and religious minded and are free from modern vices.

Ahirs are cattle-breeders. They claim to be Vaishyas but are regarded by others as Shudras. They were once a ruling class and like the Ahirs of the Uttar Pradesh claim Krishna's birth place, Mathura, as their first home. Some of their surnames are Rajput such as Chavda, Chudasama, Gohel, Goria, Pithia, Ravalia and Sisodia. The men wear a black and white headdress like the Mers, a short puckered jacket and trousers of hard woven cotton like Bharvads. The women are easily known by their coarse free-hanging blankets, shawls, pink cotton skirts, and smooth flattered anklets. They have now given up cattle-breeding and with the exception of a few who are carpenters, live as husbandmen. They revere tulsishyam (Lalji and Krishna) and a number of local goddesses. They celebrate their marriages every year on a fixed day. Among them it is usual for the younger brother to marry his elder brother's widow.[1]

Bharvad is a caste of shepherds. They claim Gokul Brindavan as their original home and to be of the same Meher caste as that to which Krishna's foster-father Nand Meher belonged. From Gokul, they are said to have moved to Meywar and from Meywar to have spread into Gujarat, Kathiawad and Cutch. They are closely related to Rabaris with whom they eat but do not intermarry.

They live on milk and bread, but can also eat the flesh of sheep and goats. They sell goat and ewes' milk and weave and sell woollen blankets. Except a few who are Ramanandi, Bharvads are followers of Mata. Like Kadwa Kanbis, Bharvads in Kathiawad and North Gujarat celebrate their marriages only once in twelve, fifteen or twenty-five years, on a day in the month of Vaishakh, and all the Bharvads of the neighbourhood hold their

1. Desai, G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, (1923), p. 201.

marriages in the same place. The richest Bharvad, among those who wish to get their daughters married, buys the plot of land where the marriages are to be celebrated. This is necessary because the plot cannot be used a second time for the same purpose. It is kept as pasture and an ornamental wooden post called the marriage pillar, is set up on it and preserved to show that the plot has been used for marriages. Among the Bharvads of Central and South Gujarat, marriages are performed with little or no ceremony. A Brahmin or a Darji, or in their absence, one of the members of the bride's family officiates at the marriage. Polygamy and widow remarriage are allowed. A younger brother of the deceased husband has the first claim on his brother's widow. Divorce is permitted. In some places the mother is not held impure after child-birth and does her household work from the day of delivery; in other places, she remains impure for fifteen days. Bharvads burn the dead. *Shraddha* ceremony is performed with the help of a Kayatia Brahmin. Caste people are feasted on the 12th day. Caste disputes are settled at a meeting of the adult castemen. Elopement is punished with excommunication and other breaches of caste rules by fine.[1]

Kumbhars are mainly doing pottery work in towns as well as in villages in their homes and are also peaceful and self-satisfied people. Kolis and Vagharis are labour classes and work as labourers. Some grow *talia*, water-melon, *chola* and other vegetables in river beds.

Kumbhars, Bharvads, Rabaris, Kolis, Vagharis and Harijans are orthodox people and follow the old social customs of their own communities. They are all very backward in education, hence follow their traditional occupations.

As for religion, the Brahmins are mainly followers of Shaivism and Kapol and Modh Banias, Lohanas and Bhatias of Vaishnavism. Kanbis are followers of Vaishnava and Swaminarayan religions. The Dasa and Visa Shrimali Banias follow Jainism. They are found mainly in Amreli and taluka towns. The Kathis, the Kumbhars, the Rabaris and the Bharvads are mainly followers of god Ramchandra and have their separate temples. While the Kolis, the Vagharis and such other backward communities have little of such religions, they believe in their Sura-puras, *bhuvas* and *dakhlas*. The Kumbhars are religious-minded and follow the Ramanandi sect.

Among Muslims, the population is mainly of the Memans, the Khojas and the Vohras which are found only in Amreli and not in rural areas. Some of them are scattered in taluka towns. After formation of Pakistan, rich persons of the Meman and the Khoja communities have migrated to Pakistan. They are making their living by following miscellaneous occu-

1. *A Glossary of Castes, Tribes and Races in the Baroda State*, (1912), pp. 10-11.

pations. In Amreli, some of them own oil-mills. Trade is their mainstay. Education is meagre. They do not hanker after Government service. The Vohras are more religious and peaceful people. They avoid going to a court of law. Very rarely, one comes across a case in which a Vohra has committed an offence and has been sentenced in a court of law.

Among the Muslims the Vohras are very orthodox and are the followers of the Mota Mulla of Surat. The Khojas are mainly the followers of Aga Khan.

In short, with the spread of education, improved means of communications and expansion of employment opportunities, the attachment to the traditional professions is gradually wearing out and it is more paying to follow professions other than the traditional ones. The former social situation in which it was possible from the caste of a person to know his profession exists no longer. The traditional society is yielding place to functional social organisation. This has become possible because under the Constitution of India, one is free to follow any avocation irrespective of caste, creed or religion.

Scheduled Castes

The population of Scheduled Castes as per 1961 Census is 46,045 (22,975 males and 23,070 females), forming 6·89 per cent of the total population of the district. The rural-urban distribution accounts for 39,549 persons (85·89 per cent) in villages as against 6,496 (14·11 per cent) in towns. Details by castes are given below.

STATEMENT III.9

Scheduled Castes Distributed into Rural and Urban Areas, 1961

Scheduled Castes	Total	Males	Females	Percentage to total population of the district		Percentage of each Scheduled Caste population	
				Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Total	46,045	22,975	23,070	5.92	0.97	85.89	14.11
Bawa (Dedh) or Dedh-Sadhu	210	99	111	0.03		86.19	13.81
Bhangi or Rukhi	4,842	2,449	2,393	0.43	0.29	59.27	40.73
Chamadia	86	39	47	0.01	..	89.53	10.47
Chamar, Nalia or Rohit	6,188	3,078	3,110	0.83	0.10	88.93	11.07
Garmatang	7	2	5	..	..	100.00	..
Garoda	517	264	253	0.06	0.02	81.43	18.57
Hadi	842	409	433	0.09	0.03	74.23	25.77
Meghwal	7,873	3,908	3,965	1.11	0.07	94.09	5.91
Turi	65	31	34	0.01	..	100.00	..
Turi-Barot or Dedh-Barot ..	50	23	27	..	0.01	50.00	50.00
Vankar, Dhedh or Antyaj	24,322	12,144	12,178	3.19	0.45	87.69	12.31
Unclassified	1,043	529	514	0.16	..	99.52	0.48

Source :

District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli, p. 19.

Vankar—Vankars are notified as a Scheduled Caste under the Constitution. Weaving is their main occupation. They are known as Vankar due to their occupation as weavers. They are also known as Meghwal, Ganeshya, Harijan, Dhedh, etc.

Their life is steady and linked with village. They live in *Vankar-vas* generally situated one side of the village. They were originally Rajputs. Their principal subdivisions are (1) Sorathia, (2) Maheshwari or Kutchhi and (3) Maru (Marwari). All these castes do not keep marriage-relations with each other. They are mainly found in the talukas of Amreli, Kodinar, Kunkavav and Rajula.

There are many legends for their origin. According to one story, they are the descendants of Meghwal Rishi. According to another story, at the time of king Siddhraj when the Sahasraling lake went dry due to the curse given by Jasma Oden, a virtuous man namely Maya who was said to be a Vankar, volunteered to sacrifice himself as a *bali* for keeping the Sahasraling lake full of water and to remove the curse of Jasma Oden. Thereafter, these Vankars were known as Mayawanshi or Meghwaya and later on they were considered as Meghwal. According to the third story, there was a saint known as Meghmal during the reign of king Siddhraj. At that time there was no water in Malav tank in Dholka It was proclaimed that if a virtuous man gives sacrifice of his body the Malav tank will be full of water. The king Siddhraj decided to sacrifice himself. But the saint Meghmal prevented him (Siddhraj) as he was the protector of all and instead sacrificed himself. After this event, the descendants of Meghmal came to be known as Meghwal.

There are many sub-castes in Meghwal or Vankar such as Parmar, Solanki, Chauhan, Adhera, Khandevi, Vaniya, Bhajadka, Makwana, Bokha, Jitia, Chavda, Varmora, Sindhav and Rathod, while Maru Vankars are known as Gohel, Badhia, Rabadia, Someshwar, Jepal, Rukhda, Ranva, Seju, Khanju, etc. Thus Sorathia Vankars differ from Maru Vankars.

In matter of food they prefer vegetarian food and do not take non-vegetarian food. The men's dress consists of *kediyu*, *chorno* and *paghadi*, while a woman puts on red *jimi*, *kapdu* and rough coloured blanket known as *chorso*.

Mainly the women wear *kabi* made of silver, *kadla*, *hansdi* made of silver and *kanto* or *vali* in nose made of gold and *chudli* made of white ivory in hand, etc. Thus they wear both gold and silver ornaments.

Their language is *Gujarati* and is influenced by *Charani* dialect.

e.g., કાઉં છે—શું છે?

કમણ્ જાના છે—ક્યાં જાવ છો?

આહ્રેા—આદંા

Both males and females are interested in *ras*, *dandiya*, *garba* and *bhajans.*

Being kept out as Antyaj, they were not educated but recently due to compulsory education, their children are going to the schools in good number.

In birth, marriage, death, etc., they follow Hindu customs. Widows are allowed to remarry and in most cases the younger brother of her deceased husband is preferred

Hadi—Hadis are notified as a Scheduled Caste in the Constitution (mostly found in Kodinar taluka). They are known as Hadi due to their occupation of selling bones Leather dyeing is their main occupation. Others work as labourers and do menial service in Government. They were originally Rajputs. In customs and manners they are similar to Chamar, yet it is a different caste than Chamar. They live in suburb separately from the village. The Hadis claim to be the descendants of Rajput and they had secured higher place in the army of Rana Pratap. About their courage and valour, there is a proverb that " પાડ ખસે પગ હાડ ન ખસે ".

There are many sub-castes in Hadi such as Chavda, Chudasama, Chorwad, Parmar, Rathod, Waghela, Makvana, Chauhan, Jadav, Pansadia, Vanja and Solanki.

In matter of food, they prefer vegetarian food, yet some of them take non-vegetarian food also.

The man's dress consists of *kediyu*, *chorno* and *paghadi* while a woman puts on *ghasiyu* (petticoat), *Kapdu* (blouse) and *odhanu* (saree).

Mainly the women wear *baloya* (bangles) in hand, *vali* in nose, *kadla* or *sankla* in feet, *tholiya* in ears, chain or *tanmaniyu* in neck. They wear both gold and silver ornaments.

They follow Hindu religion and worship mainly Ramdev Pir. In birth, marriage, death, etc., they follow Hindu customs. Widows are allowed to remarry and in most cases the younger brother of her deceased husband is preferred.

Education was neglected in the past but now they are taking interest in the education for their children.

Scheduled Tribes

There is negligible tribal or Adivasi population in the Amreli district. For, Scheduled Tribes claim 187 or only 0·03 per cent of the total population of the district and 0·006 per cent of the Scheduled Tribes in the State. Siddis are the only Scheduled Tribe in the district. Their population comprises 94 males and 93 females. Most of the Siddis live in Kodinar and Lathi talukas and Jafrabad mahal.

Siddi—Siddis are notified as a Scheduled Tribe under the Constitution. The Africans in Gujarat are called Siddis, who are supposed to have migrated to Gujarat in the middle of the 17th century. They not only became the nationals of India but had carved out a small State of Jafrabad in Gujarat. They are the descendants of African negroes, chiefly from the Somali coast brought to India as slaves. New arrivals are called *vilati* and country borns *muvalad*. They are generally agricultural labourers.

It was customary with the former States to employ Arabs, Makranis and Siddis as guards and watchmen at the palaces of the former rulers. They were also placed as watchmen in the border countries near Janjira by Nizam of Hyderabad to protect it from the attacks of Shivaji, the Maratha chief. In due course, Siddis became the rulers of Janjira and Sachin. In 1669-70, the Siddi ruler of Janjira on the western coast was appointed as the Admiral of the Mughal fleet at Surat. Moreover, they became the rulers in Jafrabad also. Thus, Jafrabad was ruled under the power of the Siddi Nawab of Janjira. The Siddi Nawab was considered as Rajwanshi. These Rajwanshi Siddis believe themselves higher than the Siddis of Saurashtra. Though these Rajwanshi Siddis differ to some extent in their culture, customs and manners from other Siddis, they are Muslim by religion. The word 'Siddi' is always used before their names such as Siddi Muhammadkhan, Siddi Husainkhan, etc. There are many sub-castes among the Siddis such as Naubi, Miyava, Majgula, Saibi, Badran, Parmar, and Makwana, etc., while in the Rajwanshi Siddis, the sub-castes

are like Melam, Ambada, Shaikh, etc. They have adopted Gujarati as their mother-tongue, but among themselves they speak a Somali dialect and with others a broken Hindustani.

In matter of food, they prefer non-vegitarian food. Their dress is not so peculiar. The men's dress consists of a shirt, *payjama*, coat and *topi*, while the village Siddis put on *chorni*, *shirt* and *phento*. A woman puts on *chaniyo*, *choli* or *Kapadu* and *chundadi* or *polku* and *sallo*.

Mainly the women wear *chudli*, *chuni* in nose, *kaps* or ear-rings in the ears and *daniyo* (necklace) while the men wear rings and some young Siddi wear *bhurki*. Thus they wear both gold and silver ornaments.

Though they are Muslims by religion, they also worship Hindu gods and goddesses and are the best representatives of Hindu-Muslim unity.

Formerly, except the Rajwanshi Siddis, they did not appreciate the value of education, while today they understand the importance of education and send their children to school.

The most noteworthy point regarding this Siddi tribe is that they are much given to dancing and singing and have a talent for imitation.

Though three hundred years of a domicile in India have made them perfect Indian citizens, they have still retained in their folk dances some features which resemble their counter-parts in Africa. Though the songs they sing while dancing are in Gujarati, they have a lilting refrain and ferocious rhythm, let loose by their primitive drums which remind us of the African tribal music. Their dances are called Dhamal and Hamchi wherein they recreate all the vigour, verve and ferocity for which the African tribal dances are so well-known The theme of the song, when the occasion is not religious is generally the hunting of the small game whose cries and movements they imitate with great skill.

Inter-caste Relations—Inter-caste relations were very rigid a generation ago. The members of different castes and sub-castes lived in close watertight compartments in such matters as inter-dining and inter-caste marriages. The picture has already changed especially after Independence and the changes that have occurred in recent times are noteworthy. Caste barriers in matters of food have almost broken. Inter-dining is no longer looked upon with disapproval by Hindus anywhere in the district particularly in towns, though this restriction still persists in a diluted form in rural areas. Inter-caste marriages, though not very common, are more frequent than ever before and many of the traditional restrictions on marriages based on caste are

gradually melting away as a result of the spread of education, influence of western culture, equality of sexes and consequent removal of disabilities from which they suffered in the past.

SAINTS AND PIRS

Amreli has been fortunate in having a number of saintly persons, who served the people of this land irrespective of caste or creed. Motivated by service to humanity, they moved from place to place and impressed the people by their preachings and saintly character. Their followers included people from all strata of society irrespective of castes or creeds. Saints and Pirs have worked for the welfare of the suffering humanity and helped the needy and the poor in distress. The most notable among them were Bhoja Bhagat, Dana Bhagat and Pipa Bhagat. Saints like Muldas and Mahasindha Velanath also lived here in their later life. While Yogiji Maharaj, a leading exponent of the Swaminarayan religion also hails from the Dhari town of this district.

Bhoja Bhagat—Shri Bhoja Bhagat was born in the Kanbi family at Devki Galol in 1785 A. D. His father's name was Karsandas and mother's name Gangabai. Till he reached the age of 12 years, he lived upon milk. Thus he showed ascetic tendency from his childhood. Although his two brothers Karman and Jaso had married, Bhoja Bhagat remained celibate. The legends about the miraculous powers of the Bhagat spread far wide and this excited jealousy among the people. As stated before, Amreli was under the Gaikwad regime. Some disgruntled persons made a complaint to the Gaikwad Diwan, Vithalrao Devaji against the Bhagat. In order to test the spiritual powers of the Bhagat, Diwan Vithalrao imprisoned him (the Bhagat) for 15 days. In the prison, although according to the custom of the Kanbis, the Bhagat was fed sumptuous food 4 times a day, he did not go to answer calls of nature. By the Yogic power, he controlled the physical alimentary functions. Being overwhelmed by this Yogic feat, the Diwan became a life-long disciple of the Bhagat. By way of spiritual sermons, the Bhagat recited 150 scourges called *chabkhas*. These *chabkhas* are in simple, straight forward and penetrating style. Among *chabkhas* following are most famous :

(1) Praniya Bhaji Le Ne Kirtar
Ato Sapnu Chhe Sansar, and

(2) Jiv Ne Swas Tani Sagai
Gharman Ghadi Na Rakhe Bhai.

Besides, these *chabkhas*, the Bhagat composed many hymns (*bhajans*) relating to morning prayers, renunciation, etc. All these he could do even though he was illiterate.

He shifted from Devki Galol to Fatehpur, a village 3.22 kms. distant from Amreli. There he built a house where his spiritual remnants are preserved for the *darshan* of his disciples. Among his disciples, were Lohana Bhakta Jalaram of Virpur and Kanbi Bhakta Valamram of Gariadhar. In 1850, he died at Virpur where there is an *ota* of his *samadhi*.

Pipa Bhagat—Another notable saint of the district is Pipa Bhagat after whom the village is named Pipavav. It is situated on the east bank of the river Jholapuri, at a distance of 16.09 kms. from Rajula. Dating back about six hundred years, 1370 A. D Pipa Bhagat was Koli by caste and his mission was to serve the down-trodden and the under-privileged. The Pipa Bhagat and his followers are still remembered by the people of this region for food, shelter and service they provided to the poor people. It is said that the temple of Ranchhodraiji was built by Pipa Bhagat. Fairs are held there on the Chaitri Purnima and the Bhadrapad Amavasya, which are attended by about 3,000 persons.

Dana Bhagat—Dana Bhagat, Kathi by caste, is a well-known saint not only in this region but throughout Saurashtra. In his later life, the centre of Bhagat's activities was Chalala, a town about 25.75 kms. from Amreli. Dana Bhagat was the son of Kala Khachar. He lost his father in the early age His mother, a devotee of Apa Jadra of Than, once came to Apa Jadra alongwith her child who was blind Apa Jadra inquired about the child and found that the child was a great saint in the making. Dana Khachar regained his eyesight as a result of conversation that took place between these two saints His mission of life was to serve the people with his ideology of simple living, of truth, righteousness and devotion. Bhagat has a number of followers even today. His *samadhi* at Chalala is a place of pilgrimage for his devotees.

Swami Shree Jnanjeevandasji (Yogiji Maharaj 1891-1971)—Swami Shree Jnanjeevandasji known as Yogiji Maharaj, was born on 3rd June, 1891 in a village Dhari about 48.28 kms. from Amreli in a poor family. His father's name was Divachandbhai and mother's name was Punbai.

During his school days, he was more interested in chanting 'Swaminarayan' *mantra* His profound devotion impelled him to impart the spiritual learning to the fellow-students Before he took up *sanyasta*, he was known as Jinabhai

He left home at the age of fourteen and joined the Swaminarayan temple at Junagadh (Saurashtra) Thereafter influenced by the saint Krishnacharandasji of Junagadh, he was initiated into the *vaishnavi diksha* and renamed Swami Juanjeevandasji. As he concentrated on god, even while performing daily chores, the *sadhus* of the fold came to call him by the loving name of Yogi.

After some years, he left the Swaminarayan temple at Junagadh and joined the Swaminarayan sect started by Swami Shree Yagnapurushadasji, a great devotee, who inherited the spiritual legacy of his *guru*, Shree Pragji Bhakta, and desired to disclose Swami and Narayan in their divine and transcendental forms of *Akshara* and *Purushottama* or *Brahma* and *Parabrahma*. Swami Shree Yagnapurushadasji who had the *aparoksanubhava* entrusted the mission to the care of Shree Yogi Maharaj, his direct spiritual descendant. Shree Yogi Maharaj followed in the footsteps of his *guru* Swami Shri Yagnapurushadasji. His profound saintliness, absolute celibacy, exuberant devotion, total detachment and spiritual hallo - all these made an indeliable impression on the mind of his followers.

The tremendous influence, that he exercised on the educated youths by his all-absorbing love, had curbed their physical desires and passions and channelised into the spiritual field. As a result, many educated young men have renounced the world and have become *sadhus*.

Yogiji spoke little, but his mode of living was a great message for a devine life. His humour and sarcasm were penetrating as they were laden with perfect spiritual wisdom, and alert the disciple against the vicissitudes of mundane life. To him, the value of life is not merely in renunciation but in a harmonious living in tune with the infinite.

He had started a number of spiritual centres for propagating the philosophy of Swaminarayan. He preached more by divine life than by discourses. He had travelled widely. During his tour in East and South Africa, he infused the principles of the Swaminarayan religion. The natives of Africa hailed him as '*moongu*' or god, as he visited their huts and patted their backs with affection. Shree Swamiji's preachings, the way of his living, his unbounded love and the heart full of compassion had a great impact on the Indians who had migrated to Africa and become confirmed addicts to wine and meat-eating.

His god-intoxicated life pervaded the atmosphere to the tune of his living. Bliss emanated from his person and wherever he moved, people throng around him in thousands.

By his strenuous efforts, many temples in and outside India have been constructed. The main temple, however, is located at Gondal, district Rajkot.

Shri Yogiji Maharaj left his mortal body on 23rd January, 1971 at Bombay.

SOCIAL LIFE

Social Customs - Hindu—Important customs observed by all the Hindus are those relating to *simanta* (pregnancy), *upanayana* (thread ceremony), *vivaha* (marriage) and death

Simanta which corresponds to the *vedic samskara* of *simantonayana* is popularly known as *agharani* or *kholo bharvo* (lap-filling) and is performed at the husband's house to celebrate the woman's first pregnancy. This ceremony is not as elaborately observed these days as in the past. After the *simanta* ceremony, the expectant woman generally goes to her parent's house for her first confinement. On the birth of a child, the midwife cuts its navel-cord and buries it in a corner of the compound in front of the house On the night of the sixth day after birth, the *chhatthi pujan* is performed, when *vidhata* or the goddess of Destiny writes the child's future. Generally on the twelfth, but sometimes on some other suitable day, the naming ceremony of the child takes place. On some auspicious day, usually in the third month of the birth, the woman returns to her husband's house with clothes, ornaments and a cradle presented to her and the grandchild by her parents.

The *upanayana* or *janoi* (sacred thread ceremony) as it is called in Gujarati is a *vedic samskara* involving various acts, one of which is investing the *batuk* (boy) with a *yagnopavit* or *janoi* (sacred thread). For the *dwijas*, (twice-born), the thread ceremony is an essential *samskara* (purificatory rite) which formally initiates one to *brahmacharyashrama* or the stage of studenthood. Besides the Brahmins, the Lohanas and the Bhatias also consider themselves by tradition entitled to the performance of these rites.

Marriage and Morals

The Hindu *shastras* consider marriage as a *samskara* or a sacrament which calls for the performance of elaborate rites and ceremonies prescribed in the *gruhyasutras*, to enable a person to enter *grahasthashram* or the householder's stage.

Marriage Ceremonies—The marriage ceremonies are elaborate. Two to three days before the day of the wedding the *mandap muhurta* (erection of the marriage pandal) and the worship of Ganpati and Gotraj (family deity) take place at both the houses. On the day of marriage or on the day previous, bride's maternal uncle and his wife bring presents (*mosalu*) for the bride and her mother. Presents to the bride consist of *panetar,*

her wedding saree, and ornaments especially ivory *chudo* to be worn at the time of the wedding. Similarly, the bridegroom also receives presents from his maternal uncle.

The marriage usually takes place at the bride's place. The *jan* (*barat*) or the bridegroom party starts in procession with a musical band or drummurs and pipers in front with the bridegroom and women singing in the rear. If the bride belongs to another place, the further journey to the bride's village or town is completed by any convenient mode of transport such as bus, motor or railway. On their arrival at the destination, they are received ceremoniously by the parents of the bride accompanied by their male relations. The party is then carried in procession to the place known as *utara*, specially reserved for their halt. Before the wedding procession starts, women of the bride's party go to the *utara* with *kalvo* consisting of *kansar* (sweet wheat preparation).

The wedding procession is usualy a very grand affair. The bridegroom, who is called *var-raja* receives all the attention as if he were a king for the time being. He rides a horse richly caparisoned or sits in a horse-carriage or motor-car. When the procession reaches the bride's place, bride's mother waves four times a miniature plough, a grinding pestle and a churning stick, over the head of the bridegroom and places at the bridegroom's feet a *samput* made of two earthen cups or *kodia* painted white and tied together with a red string so that their edges touch each other. The bridegroom treads on the *samput*, breaks it to pieces, then enters the marriage booth, takes his seat in the *mahyaru*, or booth specially decorated for the occasion.

The marriage rites and ceremonies to be performed at the *vivaha* or wedding are generally the same among all the Hindus, though they may vary in some minor details according to different castes and regions. The rites commonly in vogue are in order *kanyadana*, *vivaha homa*, *panigrahana*, *lajjahoma* and *saptapadi*. These are interspersed by a number of minor ceremonies such as feet-washing, honey-sipping, rice-throwing, present making, oath-taking, etc. Brahmins and Nagars performs the *charubhaksana* or *charubhaksu* ceremony (mutual eating of cooked rice), when the couple sit in the booth called *chori* and the priest lighting the scared fire performs a sacrifice (*havan*). The couple then feed each other with *kansar*. The bridegroom's people are then presented with cash and clothes by the bride's father. These presents are customary even among castes which do not perform *charubhakasana* ceremony. In the communities which practised dowry, bride's father had to pay to the bridegroom a very heavy price by way of *paheramani* (dowry).

In former times, when child marriage was prevalent, the bride did not accompany the bridegroom when the party returned home. This is not the case now except perhaps in case of Shrimali Brahmins who never bring the bride along with the *jan*. Some near relatives of the bridegroom stay behind to bring her later on any convenient day. The marriage ceremony at the bride's place ends with *kanya viday* a farewell ceremony both pleasant and pathetic, when the girl leaves her parents' roof to become for ever a member of the groom's family. When they reach home, the bridal couple is received ceremonially at the groom's house. They then together offer worship to the *matrukas*, *gotraj*, *rannadev* or any other nuptial deities which were installed in the household at the commencement of the marriage ceremony. The bride and bridegroom then untie the *mindhal (randia dumetorum)* from each other's wrist, feed each other with *kansar* and play with *kodis* (shell-money). With a *vadhamana* or thanks-giving at the temple of the village deity, the marriage ceremony ends.

The Hindu shastras ordain that a person should not marry in his own *gotraj* and within six degrees of relationship on the father's side and four or five on the mother side. Only Brahmins, as they know their *gotras*, can abide by the rule of *gotra* exogamy. Usually, the *gotra* of the father alone and not that of mother is considered when a marriage alliance is contemplated. Even this restriction has been showing signs of relaxation in recent times.

Moreover, a Hindu is supposed to marry within the same caste or subcaste as a general rule. Any marriage outside is considered contrary to the caste custom. These restrictions are gradually loosening and marriages outside the caste and sub-caste are on the increase particularly among the advanced and educated classes.

The Hindu scriptures enjoin that the bride be given as a gift to a suitable bridegroom. This is called *kanyadana*. In course of time, it has come to be associated with the giving of a dowry which causes acute hardship to the poor. In response to a strong agitation against the continuance of this social evil, an Act abolishing the giving or taking of dowry at the time of marriage was passed by the Indian Parliament in 1960, and any contravention of this law is made penal.

Recent Trends—With the spread of education, social legislation and high cost of living, the social outlook of the people on marriage has considerably changed in recent times. A number of undesirable social customs which were strictly observed in the past, have lost their significance under the changed circumstances. The practice of child marriages, which was

common in former times, has well-nigh disappeared and the age of marriage has substantially advanced both in case of males and females. In the case of males, the age has gone normally beyond 20 years and in the case of females, beyond 18. Child marriage has been declared unlawful by the Central legislation (the Sarda Act of 1927). Most of the restrictions which were accepted as a matter of course and scrupulously observed in the past, are being relaxed to suit the modern trends of thought and ways of living. Civil marriages, which were unknown in the past, are now-a-days on the increase. Inter-caste marriages have also started taking place among the younger generations especially in urban areas. Bigamy is prohibited by law and made penal. Widowhood is considered a curse, but restrictions on remarriage in certain castes continue. Divorce is now permitted under the law, but its extent among the higher castes is comparatively less and resorted to only under special circumstances in the district. In case where divorce is obtained by having recourse to a court of law under the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955, it is easier for the divorced male to remarry than the divorced female. Remarriages are, however, common among the lower castes where the custom known as *natra* is prevalent. Widow remarriage in the form of *diyarvatu*, that is to say levirate is permitted and practised among some of the lower castes, among whom a widow of an elder brother has to marry the younger brother of the deceased husband, irrespective of the difference in their ages.

To sum up, under the pressure of social and economic development and spread of education, the caste strictures are getting gradually loosened. Marriages have begun to take place within prohibited degrees and castes. Cases of civil marriages have begun to occur. Time taken by the marriage ceremonies is being curtailed, the accent being on spending more time and money on reception and ostentation Secondly, the widow remarriages, which were originally prevalent among the lower castes only, are on the increase among the middle and higher classes, as a result of the permissive divorce law and change in the attitude towards marriage. The custom of levirate still continues among the lower castes. Thirdly, the present day youth, though not averse to accepting dowry in marriage, does not insist on the pound of flesh from his in-laws. Fourthly, as regards expenditure, the castes and classes, which have become rich under the economic progress after Independence, indulge in conspicuous consumption, whereas those particularly the middle class people restrict expenditure on marriages to the extent possible. Lastly, the marriage bonds are loosened not only by the permissive divorce law but by the girls gaining economic independence as a result of spread of education and gainful employment. By and large, the attitude towards marriage is undergoing rapid transformation and a tendency is developing to treat it more as a contract rather than a sacrament

The following statement gives details about never married, married, widowed and divorced persons in the district according to 1961 Census.

STATEMENT III.10

Marital Status

	Total		Rural		Urban	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total population	**340,623**	**327,200**	**267,179**	**258,074**	**73,444**	**69,126**
Never married* ..	195,367	153,984	151,631	121,050	43,736	32,934
Married .	134,721	140,855	106,934	112,432	27,787	28,423
Widowed .	9,958	31,839	8,154	24,235	1,804	7,604
Divorced or separated	574	519	458	354	116	165
Status unspecified	3	3	2	3	1	..

*The figures include persons (1) who have not reached to age of marriage and (2) who, though attained the age of marriage, have not married for various reasons.

Source :
District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli, p 114

Death Ceremonies—The Hindus consider it necessary to perform certain after-death ceremonies to propitiate the dead Memorial rites or *shraddha* are performed from the tenth and continued till the thirteenth day after death On the twelfth day is performed what is called *sapindkarana* whereby the dead severs all earthly connections and joins the *pitrukas* (manes On the thirteenth day of the *shraddha* various utility articles in use by the departed soul are gifted to the family priest, so that the deceased may enjoy them in another world During the first year. *masio* (monthly), *chhamasi* (half yearly) and *varsi* (yearly) *shraddhas* are also performed.

Social Customs Muslim—The chief Muslim rites and ceremonies relating to pregnancy and birth, initiation and marriage are described below, as followed by Muslims in general and Sunnis in particular.

The first pregnancy ceremony is performed in the seventh or ninth month at the husband's house. Thereafter, the expectant woman goes to her father's house. On the seventh, fourteenth or twenty-first day after child birth, the Muslim rite of *akika* sacrifice is performed in two parts, namely, the shaving of child's head and the killing of one or two goats.

When the child completes four years, four months and four days, the Bismillah ceremony which consists of taking the name of god, is performed. The child is made to repeat, after the priest, the opening chapter of the Quran and the relatives are given a feast to commemorate the occasion. The *khatna* (circumcision) ceremony is performed when the boy becomes six or seven years old. There is rejoicing when a boy or girl observes the first Ramzan fast.

The Muslim Marriage (Nikah)—In general, a Muslim marriage lasts for two to three days. On the day of marriage, the bridegroom's relatives go to the bride's house in a procession called *bari* or *sachak* carrying in trays gifts of sweetmeats, dried fruits, ornaments and articles of dress for the bride. The party comes back with their trays refilled with clothes for the bridegroom. Sometime during the early hours of the night, the groom puts on the wedding clothes and with *sehra* (flower sheet) fastened round his forehead mounts on a horse, and starts in a procession accompanied by friends and relatives with a fanfare of musical band in front. At the bride's house, the bridegroom is led to his seat. Then the *kazi* asks the bride's agent whether she accepts so and so as her husband in consideration of *meher* (dower) as decided. If she nods assent, he takes the declaration of two other witnesses. He then puts the same question to the bridegroom. The *kazi* records these proceedings and showers his blessings on the married couple. The *nikah* or wedding ceremony is followed by an entertainment programme after which the bridegroom returns home with the bride.

Marriages, between cousins, both parallel and cross, are not prohibited among the Muslims, preference being given to the first cousin. However, sister's daughter is under incest taboo. A Muslim cannot marry his foster-mother or foster-sister, unless the foster-brother and sister were nursed by the same woman at intervals widely separated. The Quran permits polygamy which restricts to the number of four wives. But due to the economic pressure, it is becoming increasingly rare. A man may not marry his wife's sister during his wife's lifetime unless she has been divorced. Widow remarriage is in vogue but is avoided by many as a mark of social superiority. A widow can marry her deceased husband's brother or relative and a widower can marry his deceased wife's sister or relative. *Talaq* (divorce) is recognised by Muslim law at the option of the husband, but among higher classes is resorted to only as a last resort, when all attempts at rapprochement fails.

Death Ceremonies—To a person about to die, the Sura-e-yasin from the Quran is read out in an under-tone the creed and prayer for forgiveness are recited so that the dying person may also repeat it, and a few drops of honey or sugared water are put into his mouth. After he breathes

his last, the body is laid on a wooden platform, washed and perfumed. A *kafan* (shroud) consisting of three white pieces of cloth to which two more pieces, namely, *sima band* and *odhani* are added in the case of a female, is put on the dead body Then the bier is lifted on the shoulders of relatives and other Muslims and borne away to the graveyard where the last prayers are offered. Till the third day no food is cooked in the house of mourners. But friends or relatives of the deceased send cooked meals or cook them at their expense at the house of mourners

The only form of mourning laid down by the Muhammadan Law is the strict seclusion of the widow in the case of the death of the head of a family, unless forced to do so, she never leaves the house for four months and ten days Besides this strictly Muhammadan observance, some of the customs prevalent among the Hindus are also practised. The widow breaks her bangles and never again wears them. She does not put on a nose-ring If she is young, she wears dark coloured dress; if old, a white one

Social Evils—The district as a whole, is free from social evils such as drinking, prostitution and offering of live animals to deities. But sporadic cases of drinking do occur, most of which are brought to book. The evil of gambling exists on a very small scale but is mostly confined to urban areas

Property and Inheritance—As regards inheritance and succession, the Hindus are governed by the Hindu Law and the Muslims by the Muhammadan Law. The system of Hindu Law which is followed in Gujarat is Mitakshara in general and Vyavhar Mayukha in particular. The main principle of inheritance is that the property of a Hindu is never held in abeyance, but devolves on the sons on the death of the father. Under the Coparcenary Law inforce in Gujarat, the son acquires a right in the ancestral property from the time of conception. But the self acquired property can be disposed of by a person as he wills, as the son does not get any inherent or ancestral right in such property. The disabilities in respect of inheritance and succession from which women suffered in the past have been removed by enactment of special laws like the Hindu Marriage Act, 1936, Women's Right to Property Act, 1937, and the Hindu Succession Act, 1956. These laws have introduced fundamental changes in the status of women in keeping with the Directive Principles of the Constitution

The Hindu Marriage Act enforces monogamy and renders bigamy penal. The Hindu Succession Act, while breaking violently with the past, lays down uniform system of inheritance and provides for equal treatment

of males and females. Another distinguishing feature of these enactments is that any property held by a female Hindu is her absolute property over which she has full powers of disposal. The former constraints and limitations have been removed by making her a full owner and not a limited heir to the property as in the past. Thus, the male and female heirs are treated on par without any distinction of sex. When a Hindu male dies intestate, his property devolves in equal shares on his son, daughter, widow and mother. In actual practice, however, these legal provisions do not appear to be fully implemented. The rights of women have thus been given full statutory recognition by ensuring equality in property rights.

Joint Family—From time immemorial, the Hindu family was joint in food, worship and estate. It consisted of the head of the family, his wife, their sons - married and unmarried - unmarried daughters and grand children living and working together. It was the responsibility of the head of the family to marry the younger members at the proper time, offer oblations to the dead, and propitiate titular deities. The joint income of the family was spent after all the members according to individual need. The widowed, the orphaned, the aged and the disabled were duly looked after. With the passage of time, spread of education, diversification of occupations and migration in search of employment, the bonds of joint family system have begun to loosen and the desire for individual liberty and living has necessitated a change in the concept of the family as an economic unit. The need of getting higher and specialised education has separated the younger members from their family for studying at high schools and colleges which are located in towns and cities. On the completion of their studies many of them have settled there and established separate households, as villages offer few prospects for their gainful employment. With the spread of industrialisation and the increasing pressure of population on land, the village people have migrated to large industrial and urban centres of growth to eke out their livelihood. Thus the number of joint families have begun to disintegrate and the old social order characterised by the joint family system has been undermined under the stress of modern economic conditions and ways of life. The individualistic tendencies are gaining ground day by day, and the former ties which bound the family together are gradually thinning out. Younger members of the family prefer to live separate rather than continue joint and are naturally anxious about their own needs and comforts in preference to those of other members of the family. This happens mostly after marriage. Despite these changes, the joint family systems till survives in an attenuated form without the former loving cohesion born of the spirit of sacrifice and regard for common family welfare.

Place of Women in Society—From time immemorial women occupied a high position in the Hindu society. Lord Manu had declared that gods reside in those households where women are respected. (यत्र नार्यस्तु पूज्यन्ते रमन्ते तत्र देवता: ।) The husband who cast off his innocent wife was punished by the king The wife, likewise, was supposed to worship her husband as God (पति देवो भव ।) and to remain faithful to him. The status of women, however, declined after the Muslim invasions of India, when seclusion or *purdah* came into vogue as a measure of safety and protection. The practice continued thereafter particularly among Rajput chiefs, and Zamindars as a mark of status symbol. Their womenfolk remained confined to the four walls of their homes This seclusion was stricter in villages than in towns, and greater among the Muslims than among the Hindus But things have much changed in modern times, and the former seclusion of women has well-nigh disappeared.

During the second half of the present century, the desire for a rise in the level of living and soaring prices have created problems unknown in the past. Generally and for the most part, it is men, who were economically active, though in rural areas, among the cultivating classes women had (have) been giving a helping hand to their male partners in rearing cattle, looking after crops and assisting them in agricultural operations. It was only in towns that women were completely dependent on the earning male members and did not take part in any economic activity. Economic stress and aspirations for a higher standard of life have made it difficult for the families in urban areas to make both ends meet. With the spread of education and development under the Five Year Plans, vast opportunities for employment have developed partly due to the economic stress and partly due to love of economic independence, educated women are coming out from the seclusion of hearth and home in increasing numbers for gainful employment Women of the labouring classes are working shoulder to shoulder with males in textile mills and other industrial units involving manual labour The participation of women in economic activity which was totally absent among the middle and higher classes in the past is increasing day by day to meet the economic challenge thrown out by the modern way of living This tendency is gaining greater ground since Independence because of the equality of opportunities guaranteed to both the sexes under the Constitution of the country.

Home Life

Housing—In Amreli district according to the 1961 Census, there were 158,045 houses of which 117,818 or 74.55 per cent were used as dwellings or shops and workshop-*cum*-dwellings, 16,974 or 10.74 per cent were vacant and the rest 23,253 or 14·71 per cent were used for non-residential purposes. Of the total, 75·76 per cent of the houses were in

rural areas and 24·24 per cent in urban areas. Taking the district as a whole, on an average, out of every thousand census houses, 107 were vacant as against 893 which were occupied. The district average was exceeded by the Lilia mahal, Babra taluka, Amreli taluka, Khambha mahal and Lathi taluka where the proportion of vacant houses was 178, 140, 132, 117 and 110 respectively. The district average was exceeded by the Khambha mahal, though it is a mere rural area. In all other talukas, the proportion was less than the district average, the smallest being 68 in Kodinar taluka. Houses remain vacant for a variety of reasons, the principal amongst them being the desire of the house-owners not to give them on hire during their absence so that when they come back, they can stay there during such brief vacations.

According to the 1961 Census, the number of households was 115,641 as compared to dwelling houses which numbered 117,818 78·43 per cent of the households lived in owned houses and the rest 21·57 per cent in rented houses. As is to be expected, the proportion of owned houses was comparatively less in towns than in villages. While in urban areas 57·02 per cent of the householders lived in their own houses, in rural areas this percentage was as high as 82·20.

Housing facilities in the district appear to be on the whole inadequate 20 per cent sample housing census conducted during 1961 disclosed that as many as 66·96 per cent of the total sample households in the district lived in single room houses, 23 86 per cent in houses with two rooms and less than 10 per cent in houses with more than two rooms. The extent of overcrowding can be measured from the fact that the number of persons who shared single room houses came to 5·11 on an average.

Rural Housing—Most of the houses in villages had mud walls or stone walls plastered with clay and cow-dung emulsion, though grass, leaves or reeds (wattle and dante) were in frequent use in the construction of hutments of those who were financially backward. According to the Census of 1961, as many as 66 90 per cent of houses in rural areas of the district were built of mud and 23·75 per cent of houses were built of stone. 3·87 per cent had walls built with burnt bricks and 3·44 per cent with unburnt bricks. As regards roofing material, 97·35 per cent of the dwellings had tiled roofs and 2·22 per cent had roofs of grass, leaves, reeds and bamboos and the rest had stone slabs or iron or cement sheets. The roofs were mostly covered with *deshi* or country tiles though the preference for *vilayati* or Mangalore tiles brought by sea is nowadays apparent in many villages. The flooring in a majority of village houses was of beaten earth covered with cow-dung emulsion which is believed to possess certain antiseptic properties, stone and cement tiles being in demand in houses of the well-to-do.

Urban Housing—In urban areas, 34·83 per cent of houses had stone walls and 34·79 per cent of houses had mud walls. 17·32 per cent of the houses had walls built with burnt bricks while 3·26 per cent had unburnt bricks. The use of tiles as roofing material was found to be comparatively not much less in urban areas than in villages. 90·92 per cent of the dwellings in urban areas had tiled roofs, 4·79 per cent had concrete or stone slabs; 2·09 per cent had corrugated iron or cement sheets and only 2·02 per cent had reeds, grass, leaves and bamboos as roof materials.

Statement III.12 showing Census houses and the uses to which they are put, Statement III.13 showing Distribution of sample households living in census houses used wholly or partly as dwelling by predominant material of wall and roof (based on 20 per cent sample), Statement III.14 giving details of Sample households classified by number of members and number of rooms occupied (based on 20 per cent sample) are extracted from the Housing tables published in Census of India 1961, Vol. V, Part-IV B, *Housing and Establishments Tables* and are reproduced at the end of this Chapter.

Layout of Towns and Villages

Towns—The general layout of large size villages and towns in this district appears to be essentially the same, particularly with regard to the functional distribution of castes and workers. As in the case of villages, towns, some of which have developed from large sized villages or happen to be the headquarters of a district, a taluka/mahal are either on the bank of some river, on the sea-shore or on some elevated ground. For example, Amreli is situated on the elevated ground while Jafrabad is on sea-shore and Dhari has developed on the confluence of three rivers. In towns, the main roads passing across the central area branch off into sub-roads leading to residential areas distributed according to the functional characteristics of castes. Towns and large size villages, which were in the past the principality or seat of some estate holder had their *darbargadh* either in the centre or on one side of the village around which various castes are distributed in the traditional order. In recent times, the name of the new streets in the towns are given with the name of the leading persons from different walks of life. On the whole, the construction of the buildings in the district is of old type, while the new buildings are built in modern style.

Villages—As regards small villages, the old pattern has not changed to any appreciable extent. Generally, the villages in this district are situated having regard to the resources available such as water-supply and cultivable land. Some villages of the Dhari taluka are situated in Gir area. In general, every village has localities earmarked for different

castes. In a good number of villages, there is a central place known as *chowk* with public place called *chora* housing the temple of Lord Rama or Thakorji which serves as meeting place for elderly people. Close to the village gate and often outside, it is what is commonly known as *harijanvas* where the Scheduled Caste people stay in their mud-walled hutments.[1] Next to it are the other Backward Classes like Vagharis, etc., stay in the grass hutments which are known as *kuba*. The houses of higher classes are generally situated in the centre of the village followed by those of artisan and service classes. The integrated layout of the houses also varies according to castes. The house of a Girasdar or Zamindar or the village yoeman, for example, usually has a huge gateway or *delo* on either side of which is *bethak* or meeting place separated from the main house by an open courtyard. Provision for separate appartments for males and females usually exists in such houses as women of the household do not appear in public. The houses of traders or artisans are usually shop-*cum*-dwellings or workshop-*cum*-dwellings. A Brahmin's house is usually provided with a separate kitchen and water-room with a corner reserved for worshipping the household deity. The houses of the backward classes are mostly single room tenements with a verandah in front. With the increasing efforts now made by Government to improve living conditions of the Backward Classes and Scheduled Tribes and Castes, their newly constructed houses are much better planned and provided with greater comforts. A major part of the houses in villages in this district is found to be one room tenements with a *parsal* or *osari* in the front. Dwellings with more than one room are mostly found to be occupied by higher and well-to-do classes. Most of the houses have an open courtyard in front or at the back enclosed by a wall where the agriculturists keep their cattle and the village artisans carry on their household industry. Separate rooms for storing, living or sleeping are unknown in such dwellings though separate kitchens are not altogether absent. Ventilation and sanitation facilities are meagre. In the past, ventilation was not found indispensable to villagers whose economic activity kept them busy in fields. Nor was its provision possible in their short-sized dwellings. To them the prime use of housing was safety and protection of their scanty belongings and cattle against adverse climatic conditions, wild animals and thieves. But the new structures that are now being built do possess adequate ventilation facilities. Air and light are appreciated to a far greater extent than in the past as evidenced by the opening of more windows or widening of the ventilators in the wall. Yet the proportion of the windows and ventilations is less in the villages of the Kodinar taluka, as it is bounded by the sea to its south. Mud-walls are being replaced by burnt bricks and country tiles by Manglore tiles. In Lilia taluka, three villages are established with well-planned modern

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1. It is noteworthy that the *harijanvas* is generally established on the east side of the village in each village of the Dhari taluka.

construction. The desire on the part of village people for a better and decent living is evidenced by new structures which are more airy and spacious. The trend thus indicates significant changes in living conditions which are far better than in the past due to the improvement of economic condition in the countryside.

Furniture and Decorations—Household furniture and decorations usually reveal the status, the economic condition and the taste of the householder. To an urbanite, furniture is no more a luxury now, it is an essential item for comfortable living. In urban households, various types of furniture are in use. A well-to-do family dwelling in a spacious residence with separate bed rooms and drawing rooms usually has one or more sofa-sets, chairs, teapoys, dining and study tables, woven carpets, bedsteads and other items of furniture made of wood or steel according to its need and capacity. A radio set, wooden or steel cup-board, mirrors, attractive wall clocks, etc., are other items in common use by such a family. An ordinary educated middle class household too will have these pieces, though on a moderate scale. Others would rest content with a chair or two of ordinary type and a simple cot and a stool. *Hinchko* or swing made of a wooden plank is cheap and, therefore, continues to be a favourite item of furniture with all classes.

The villagers at large have not yet become furniture minded. An average agriculturist has a few bedsteads as the only item of furniture. But those, who are better off, go in for a wooden chair or two, a *pat* or a swing, a plain mirror a simple wall clock and wooden cup-board or a *patara* (safe) to store the valuables.

Houses of well-to-do families in urban areas are decorated with curtains, decorative mirrors, flower-pots, table-lamps and wall pictures. Others have a picture or two or a calendar to adorn the house wall. Some of the houses in cities and villages have their doorways frequently decorated with *torans* made of glass beads. In villages, *chaklas* or square pieces of cloth beautifully embroidered in traditional designs or worked in bead are the popular mode of wall decoration. House walls are also decorated with pictures of gods, goddesses, religious and national leaders

Food, Dress and Ornaments

Food—The Hindus in this district, as in other districts of Gujarat, are mostly vegetarian. High caste Hindus generally take two meals a day, but those doing physical work including labourers in urban areas and agriculturists, field workers and artisans in rural areas take three meals a day - the breakfast in the morning, then the full meal or *rondho* at the noon and *valu* at night.

The food taken by most of the people in rural areas is very simple consisting of three or four items per meal. It is mostly confined to *rotla* (or loaf) of *jowar* or *bajri* with *ghee, gur* and *chhas* (buttermilk) or milk, which is the most popular and common item of meals coupled at times with some vegetable or pulse. Rice and *dal* do not find a place in their daily meals not only because most of them cannot afford them but also because they do not need or relish them daily. Only on some special occasions do they have rice, curry, vegetable or some sweet. Otherwise it is the buttermilk which serves the purpose along with *rotla* or *khichadi* (hotchpotch) which is also a popular item of food generally taken in the evening by all classes of people both in rural as well as in urban areas. Generally, the village people prefer *chutnys* of garlic and chillies with *rotla* or *khichadi*. The morning meal of an ordinary urbanite usually consists of *rotli*, rice, *dal* or curry, vegetable or *kathol* (pulse). The well-to-do have such ancillary items as *kachumbar* (salad), *chutnys*, *murabbas*, various types of pickles and one or more additional vegetables. The evening meals are comparatively simple usually consisting of *bhakhari* or *rotla* or *thepla* or *puri*, milk or *chhas* and a vegetable. The use of *dal* and *bhat* is generally dispensed with evening meals, though a few among the well-to-do repeat it also at night. During the last sixty years, the use of tea has become universal among all classes of people, who take it twice a day, morning and afternoon. A few persons prefer coffee.

Dress—The commonest type of dress worn by males in rural areas consists of cotton trousers called (*chorni*) and a short *kediyu* or *angarkhu* covering the upper part of the body. Most of the people especially agriculturists still continue to put on the typical head dress, a thickly folded turban called *phento* or *faliyu*. Before the appearance of Mahatma Gandhi on the political arena, the turban was the only headwear and the way one folded his turban was an indication in many cases of the caste of the wearer. Since Mahatmaji began to wear a *khaddar* cap, the white Gandhi cap has become the common mode of headwear both in villages and towns. Women in villages put on coloured petticoat (*chaniyo*), blouse or bodice (*choli* or *polku*) along with *odhani*, a coloured piece of coarse cloth covering the body and the head. Elderly males of higher classes put on *dhoti* (waist cloth) and *kafani* or *paheran* (shirt), while the younger folk have taken to trousers or *pyjamas* with shirts or bush-shirts.

As far as urban areas are concerned, there is no remarkable difference in the dress put on by the people in this district from those in other parts of the State. The traditional type of dress consisting of *angarkhu* (coat), *jamo* (long robe or vest), *dupatto* or *khes* (shoulder cloth) are no longer in general use by the urbanites. The womenfolk generally put on *sari* along with blouse and petticoat. The youngsters have commonly accepted shirts or bush-shirts. Curiously enough, head dress of any kind has

gone almost completely out of fashion among the younger as well as most of the older people, who go about bare-headed. Turbari is replaced by white *khadi* cap as a general headwear. Women wear cotton *saris* or *sallas* of finer variety, petticoats and blouse in preference to the older type of bodice which has been now given up. Girls do not put on *odhani* as before but have taken to frocks, slacks and skirts. The *chappal* has become a favourite foot-wear for men, women and children.

The transformation, that has taken place especially during the last two to three decades in men's dress, is due to two factors. The important factor, which has influenced the dress of the people not only in this district but throughout the country is the starting of the *swadeshi* movement by Gandhiji, who stressed simplicity in dress and use of *khaddar* by all strata of society. The second factor was the acute shortage of cloth caused by World War II, which necessitated all possible economy in the use of cloth by all strata of society, high or low. Continuous rise in prices operated as a further check even when stocks were ample. The Gandhian movement has made the Gandhi cap popular, while World War II has brought the bush-shirt in the ward-robe of the people.

Ornaments—Ornaments are used both by males and females since ancient times to adorn different parts of the body. Used mainly for emphasizing one's out-ward appearance, ornaments change from time to time according to the prevailing fashions and also differ from community to community. The change is effected not only in their style or design but also in their size, weight and content. While the ornaments used in the past were generally simple, solid and heavy, those in vogue at present are much lighter, refined and sophisticated in designs. In the past, ornaments used to serve the purpose of economic safety and insurance in times of stress and difficulty. Now with the spread of modern banking and other facilities, the stress is more on ostentation and refinement than on solid content of silver or gold.

In the past, there were certain ornaments which were commonly used by both males and females. These included *kanthi* worn round the neck, a silver *kandora* worn round the waist and a *vinti* (ring) worn on one or more of the fingers. With the passage of time, men in general have ceased using these ornaments except the ring, which is now the only common ornament for males and females both in rural and urban areas.

Female Ornaments—Ornaments in regular use by women in rural areas are either of silver or alloy or of ivory though gold ornaments are no less popular with those who can afford them. Women in rural areas generally put on heavy silver ornaments. These include *dhabukla, dokiyu,*

ramnami or *madaliyu* worn round the neck. They also wear gold ornaments such as chain, *hansdi* and necklace round the neck, *kada*, *chudla* or *khadak* of silver or of ivory plated with gold or silver worn on the wrists and *todla*, *sankalan* or *kadlan*, *bedi* and *kabutari* on the anklets. Instead of light ear-rings, women in rural areas put on heavy *tholiya* or *latkaniya* or *loliya* and *vedhlas* on ears. The nose-ring known as *nath* or *chunk* used by them is bigger in size and heavy as compared with those used by women in urban areas. Women belonging to Rabari, Bharvad and other backward castes put on heavy ivory *kada* or *chuda* covering the entire forearms. They also wear *hansdi* made of silver round the neck and *akoti* on ears.

Fashions in women's ornaments in urban areas are undergoing rapid changes. A general tendency appears to avoid heavy ornaments in preference to finer and lighter ones. Jewellery is worn by those, who can afford it. In general, women in the urban areas adorn their ears with attractive ear-rings or *butti* made of gold or pearls or precious stones set in gold. Round their neck they put on a gold necklace or a chain with a pendant attached in the middle or a *mangalsutra*, if married. Thick golden necklace known as *hansdi* is put on special occasions. The fashion of putting *nath* or *chunk* in the nose, which had gone out of fashion among the educated girls and ladies, has come back with a vengeance. Bangles of gold, glass and plastic are the most common ornaments for women. Gold rings of simple design or set with precious or imitation stones are also popular. Many young women use golden hair-pins to fix their hair. Silver *zanzar* or *sankalan* worn on the anklets are going out of vogue. A wrist-watch is a recent addition and is gradually becoming popular among the younger generation.

Male Ornaments—The males in rural areas, particularly agriculturists, adorn their ears with *kundal*, *tholiya* or *dul* made of gold or silver and a gold or silver ring or two on their fingers. They also use a silver chain of buttons on their upper garments. Those belonging to Bharvad, Rabari and other castes usually put on silver *kada* on their wrists and a silver chain on their waist.

The most common ornament for males in urban areas is the ring and of course, the wrist-watch which is highly popular not only in towns but also in villages. A few orthodox persons put on *kanthi* or gold chain round their neck.

The extent of use of silver or gold or jewellery in the making and wearing of ornaments is mostly governed by the social and economic status of the household and the class of society to which it belongs. Those who cannot afford to have ornaments of gold or jewellery rest content with

simpler and cheaper ornaments made of silver or even of alloy and inferior metals. Moreover, the use of gold ornaments has been considerably affected by the high price of gold and the enforcement of Gold Control Order imposing restrictions on making ornaments out of pure gold. This has resulted in the revival of some of the traditional silver ornaments such as *zanzar*, *kandoro*, ear-rings, etc., as also in the making of all those in silver which formerly used to be made in gold.

COMMUNAL LIFE

The Garba and Ras—Among the various cultural activities and forms of entertainment in vogue in this district, mention may be made of the folk-dance called *rasda* and *garba* which had their origin in certain religious observances of the people, and later came to be associated with social occasions as a form of recreation and merriment. *Garba* and *ras*, so popular in Saurashtra, are played both by men and women especially during the Navratri festival (the first nine days of the Hindu month of Ashvin) and are the commonest form of celebrations in Gujarat. *Garbi*, is generally played by males and is more vigorous and quicker in rhythm as compared with *garba*, which is played by women.

Ras or *dandia-ras*, as it is called, is a variation of the *garba* folk dance played both by men and women. Each player has a pair of *dandia* (small sticks or batons) one in each hand. The players move round in a circle in pairs and strike alternatively with their own sticks and with those of their partners. The timing and spacing of movement, and steps and the tunes of folk-songs to the accompaniment of music, instrumental and vocal, are so perfect, exquisite and graceful that they hold the audience spell-bound. To promote and propagate this fascinating art, the State Government organises *garba-ras* competitions every year at different places in the State and awards special prizes and shield to those adjudged best.

Bhavai—The another item alike of entertainment and festive celebration is *bhavai*, a kind of folk-drama performed at night, and having as its themes some religious or social anecdotes of moral and entertainment value. *Rama-lila* another type of folk-drama enacted in villages depicts the life of Lord Rama. With the increasing influence of other forms of refined entertainment, the *bhavai* and *Rama-lila* have ceased to be popular. However, at a time when there was no organised theatre, the *bhavai* provided good diversion to village-folk. Its usefulness lies in its spontaneity, its folk-lore and drama which the villagers easily follow and in its inexpensive character which brings entertainment to the very door steps of the villagers. Efforts are, therefore, being made after Independence to revive and encourage the *bhavai* by State aid as a form of popular

entertainment by including it as one of the items of the annual drama festival organised in Gujarat.

Public Games and Recreation—The purpose of the public games is to create community consciousness and enthusiasm amongst people with pleasure. While a good number of indigenous outdoor games have been replaced by western games, many of them have still retained their popularity. For example, the old games of *hu-tu-tu*, *kho-kho* and *langadi*, which develop strength, speed, agility and endurance, are still played both in towns and villages with almost the same zeal and interest as in the past. At the same time, games like *gilli-danda*, *ata-pata*, *matli-dav*, etc., are practically forgotten in urban areas and their place is being taken up by such western games as cricket, football, tennis, volleyball, badminton, etc. Facilities for playing modern games are provided in colleges and schools. Inter-schools and inter-collegiate sports competitions are regularly organised. A large number of students and adults are participating in the taluka and district sport competitions organised every year in this district. Other agencies like sports clubs and gymkhanas are also organising competitions and tournaments. Indoor games like caroom, table-tennis, etc., are popular among the youngsters, while playing cards, bridge, rummy and *doodi* are favourite pastime with adults. In the rural areas, *gilli-danda* and *bhammarda* are still played with the same interest.

The elder section among the higher and middle classes prefer to go to clubs and *vyayamshala* in the evening, whereas the younger people studying at high schools and colleges have their own sports clubs, gymkhanas and associations. There is a Secondary School Games Federation (*Madhyamik Shala Krida Mandal*) which conducts games and sports competitions for secondary schools in the winter and autumn. There is also a District Level Sports Committee which conducts district level sports such as volleyball, *hu-tu-tu*, *kho-kho*, track and field events. There exists the famous Samarth Vyayam Mandir which produced famous Vyayam Vir Shri Bhagwanjibhai Mehta. There is also Lions Club in this district. All these organisations obviously cater to the needs of recreation mostly of the well-to-do and higher middle classes. But for a majority of others, who have hardly the time and money to spend after such pursuits, an occasional visit to picture house is the only form of entertainment they can afford. Others rest content with visiting some temple or *haveli* either to hear *katha*, *kirtan*, *bhajan* or religious discourse or have a *darshan* of the deity. The Muslims visit mosques.

Villages have their own forms of entertainment and recreation. While children play such traditional games as *hu-tu-tu*, *kho-kho*, *gilli-danda* and *bhammarda* which are still popular, there are many others like *langadi*, *santa-kukadi*, *pakad-dav*, *matli-dav*, etc., some of which are fast disappearing. For the adults, *bhajan mandali* and *ras mandali* provide rest

and recreation at night, when the male-folk assemble at the village *chora* and pass their time in singing devotional songs-*bhajan* and *kirtan*. On the night of full moon day, women play *ras* and men play *dandia-ras*, i. e., Tipani dance. With the passage of time and the impact of Community Development Programme, new forms of recreations are also coming up, though efforts are made to sustain and revive the older forms, which are still popular with the people at large. These are youth clubs and *mahila mandals* which provide the younger generation with entertainment coupled with constructive activities of rural welfare.

CALENDAR

The Hindu Calendar—The celebration of various festivals by different religious communities is closely associated with the different systems of time-reckoning or calendar in vogue in different parts of the country. The Hindus of Amreli generally follow the Vikram Samvat (era) which precedes the Christian era by fifty-six years. The year begins with the month of Kartik, gets divided into three sessions, namely, winter consisting of the months of Kartik, Margashirsh, Paush and Magha, summer extending over the month of Phalgun, Chaitra, Vaishakh and Jyestha, and the monsoon over Ashadh, Shravana, Bhadrapad and Ashvin Each month is divided into two fortnights, *shukla paksha*, the bright fortnight, when the moon is waxing and *krishna paksha*, the dark fortnight when the moon is waning. Dates are reckoned by the day of the fortnight of each month.

The Halari Samvat—Halari Samvat is followed in this district also. Also known as Ashadhi New Year it is a form of Vikram era commencing from Ashadh Sud 1 marking the beginning of the agricultural season.

The Jain Calendar—Jains generally follow Vir (*nirvan*) Samvatsara, which commenced in 527 B. C. from the day when Mahavir the last of the twenty-four Jain *tirthankars* attained *nirvan*, for the observance of their religious practices and events.

The Muslim Calendar—Muslims in Amreli district generally follow Hijri era, though it is the Vikram era which is generally followed for accounting and commercial purposes This era is Arabic in origin. The Hijri era came into being from 15th July, 622 A.D. in the 42nd year of the life of Prophet Mohammed to commemorate his *hijrat* (migration) from Mecca to Madina. A year according to this era is divided into the following 12 months —

1. Muharram,	2. Safar,	3. Rabi-ul-Awwal,
4. Rabi-us-Sani,	5. Jamadi-ul-Awwal,	6. Jamadi-us-Sani,
7. Rajab,	8. Shaaban,	9. Ramzan,
10. Shawwal,	11. Zilaqaad,	12. Zilhijja.

FESTIVALS

Festivals as they are celebrated in this country symbolise people's cultural, social and religious aspirations which besides helping them to lead a fuller and better life also mitigate its monotony by providing physical diversion and mental recreation. Though principally associated with religion, there are a number of occasions wherein the social aspect assumes prominence. In fact, festivals are special days, periods of time and seasons, which are so designed as to ensure individual joy by practising religion coupled with social joy and domestic happiness.

Hindu Festivals

The Hindus have a number of festivals all the year round. The principal festivals which are observed by almost all castes and classes in the district include the Divali and the New Year's Day, the Makara Sankranti, the Holi, the Balev, the Navratri and the Dassera besides the Mahashivratri, the Rama Navami and the Janmashtami which are mainly observed by the followers of the respective sects. There are a number of other festivals such as the Bhai-Bij, the Dev Divali, the Vasant Panchami. the Nag Panchami, the Rushi Panchami, the Shitla Satam, the Ganesh Chaturthi, etc., which are also popular in the district. The Akhatrij or Akshaya Tritiya falling on Vaishakh Sud 3 and the Bhadarvi Amas occurring on the *Amavasya* of Shravan have special significance for agriculturists. The Akhatrij is considered auspicious for commencing agricultural operations. The agriculturists worship their bullocks and implements and adore them with kumkum and flower. On Bhadarvi Amas which is considered to be the holiest among *amavasyas,* the farmers worship their bullocks and feed them. Fairs are also held in many places where people congregate in large numbers.

To devout Hindus, every *ekadashi* is a sacred festival to be celebrated by observing fast and performing *kirtans*. Of all the *ekadashis,* those falling on Kartik Sud 11 (Dev-Uthi Ekadashi), Jyestha Sud 11 (Nirjala or Bhim Ekadashi), and Ashadh Sud 11 (Dev-Podhi Ekadashi) are specially sacred. There are certain religious festivals, which have special significance for ladies. These include Alunavrata during the month of Chaitra, when women take *aluna* or saltless diet, the Vat-Savitri Purnima (Jyestha Sud 15) when married women worship a banyan tree and keep awake the whole night for nuptial bliss and long life of their husband, the Gauri Vrata or Jaya-Parvati Vrata observed for five days from Ashadh Sud 11 to 15, both by married women and maidens in dedication to the worship of goddess Gauri or Parvati, and Divaso (falling on the last day of Ashadh) when Hindu women observe fast and keep awake the whole night to please goddess Parvati for marital bliss. The Randhan Chhath (Shravan Vad 6) is an important day for ladies, which is devoted to cooking

food for the day following sacred to the Shitla Mata or the goddess of small-pox when the goddess Shitla is supposed to wander about among the hearths. Artificial heat by kindling the fire in the oven or hearth is, therefore, eschewed on that day for fear of annoying the goddess. In the morning of Shitla Satam, the lady of the house worships the goddess under a *pipal* tree (*ficus religiosa*), whereafter the food cooked the previous day is taken by the household. Some of the festivals, which are important and popular in the district are described below in brief.

The Divali—Of all the numerous festivals celebrated in the district, the most important and most popular among the people is the Divali, appropriately known as the queen of festivals. It is both the climax and commencement of the yearly cycle of festivals, marking the close of the old year and ushering in of the new Its celebration is, therefore, spread over six consecutive days starting from the Ashvin Vad 12 (Vagh Barash) and extending upto Kartik Sud 2 (Bhai Bij).

On Vagh Barash, also known as Govatsa Dwadashi, a cow with a calf is worshipped in the evening on its return from grazing and fed with a preparation of *udid* Dhan Terash is dedicated to the worship of Laxmi, goddess of wealth. In rural areas, cows are adorned, their horns and hoofs are painted and their necks decorated with necklace of bronze bells. Kali Chaudash, also known as Narak Chaturdashi is dedicated to goddess Mahakali. It derives its name from the demon king Narkasur, who was killed on this day. The day is also important for the worship of Hanuman, who killed the demons Ahi Ravan and Mahi Ravan on this day and was, therefore, offered oil and red lead by Ram and Lakshman. Divali is celebrated by all and sundry on the *amavasya* of Ashvin. The day is very important to merchants, who close their yearly accounts on this day, and open new account books with a ceremonial worship of Lakshmi and Sharda This ceremony is called Chopda Pujan or Vahi Pujan. During Divali festivals houses are decorated and made clean and tidy. Lamps (*dipmalas*) are lighted in every house, *rangoli* and *sathiya* designs are drawn near the entrance doors and crackers are fired at night.

The New Year Day is the most important day of the year for the people. They get up unusually early in the morning After bath and worship to the household deity people visit temples and then go to pay respect to their elders and exchange greetings with relatives and friends. At every house, dishes of sweet preparations are offered to the visitors. Salt or *sabras*, which is the essence of all tastes, is the first thing bought in the morning as an auspicious omen representing the zest of life. Divali is also a harvest festival coming at the end of the rainy season. On the New Year Day *annakuta*, (offering of all possible varieties of food, sweets and vegetables prepared from new grains) is arranged for propitiating the gods.

The day following the New Year Day is known as Bhai Bij and is dedicated to the ideal love between brother and sister. Every Hindu housewife invites her brothers to her home on this day and feasts them. The brothers in return give her presents in cash or in the form of some articles of her liking.

The Makara Sankarnti—The day on which the Sun entres the orbit of Makara (Capricorn) is called Makara Sankranti. On this day, cows are worshipped in the morning and fed with boiled *bajri* or *jowar* known as *ghughri* or *tethawa*. Foodgrains are distributed to the poor and needy. The day has a special significance to the agriculturists, as by Makara Sankranti the *kharif* crops are ready and brought home. These are shared with others, as gift of grain earns great religious merit on this day. Grass is freely distributed to the village cattle. The young and old indulge in their favourite pastime of kite-flying.

The Holi or Hutashani—The Holi or Hutashani is celebrated as a festival of spring by young and old alike. It is an ancient festival held at a time when the *rabi* crops like wheat, gram, cotton, til, etc., are harvested and brought in the market. The Holi fire is lighted at night at every village and in every part of the town or city and worshipped by all. The day after Holi is known as Dhuleti, celebrated by spraying colours and indulging in fun and revelry.

The Balev or Coconut Day—On Shravan Sud 15 four distinct ceremonies namely, (i) Shravani, (ii) Rakshabandhan, (iii) Balev and (iv) Coconut day are celebrated. The day is known as Shravani, as it falls in the month of Shravan. Brahmins change their sacred thread. Sisters tie *rakhadi* or *raksha* around the right wrist of their brothers as a charm protecting them from the evils during the ensuing year. The day is also known as Nariyeri Punam or Coconut day as in the coastal areas. Merchants, traders and others offer coconuts to Sea God, Varun, as it is from this day that the boats are put to sail.

The Janmashtami—The festival to celebrate Shri Krishna's birthday falls on the eighth of the dark half of Shravan and is known as Gokulashtami or Janmashtami. This festival has special significance for Dwarka which was the adopted home and capital of Lord Krishna. Devout Vaishnavas observe fast for the whole day. A good number of fairs are held on this day at various places.

The Navratri—Navratri or the festival of nine nights begins from the first day of Ashvin and spreads over nine days. It is sacred to the mother goddess, whose ten manifestations are described in Devi Mahatmya of the Markandeya Purana. The goddess is worshipped daily during these

days and earthen pots pierced with numerous holes, containing a light called *garbo*, are kept near the image or trident of the goddess. The lamp is kept burning throughout the night and during the entire Navratri period. Prayers and *garbas* in praise of the goddess are sung by devotees. On the ninth day of the festival, the *havan* ceremony is performed and *naivedya* (food offering) offered to the goddess and its *prasad* distributed.

The Dassera—The *Navratri* festival is immediately followed by Dassera, so called from *das* (ten) and *ahar* (day). It is also called the Vijayadashami or the tenth day of victory, as it commemorates the victory of Ram or Ravan. It is also believed that on this day goddess Durga killed the Demon Mahishasur after a nine-day battle. Vijayadashmi is thus the day of victory of good over evil and is considered auspicious day to start any new work. Great importance is attached to the worship of *shami* tree (*prosopis spicigera*) on this day. It is believed that one, who worships *shami* tree on this day, is freed from sins committed by his ten senses. The day is, therefore, called *Dash-hara*. The day has a special significance to Kshatriyas, who during the former princely States, celebrated the dav with very great fanfare

Over and above the festivals described above. which are observed by the Hindus, such national festivals as the Independence Day, the Republic Day, and the Gandhi Jayanti day are observed by people belonging to all castes and communities in the district.

Jain Festivals

The Jain festivals are generally associated with severe austerities and fasting and always with worship The devotee is required to avoid, in addition to roots, which are prohibited on ordinary days, leafy vegetables, dry fruits, tasty food preparations, milk and curd and in some cases even water, when severe austerities and penance are enjoined. For Jainism lays great emphasis on *tap* or penance as a means of earning religious merit And so it is the religious aspect which is for the most part prominent in Jain festivals.

The principal Jain festivals are the Paryushana, the Oli (Siddhachakra Puja), the Kartik Purnima and the Mahavir Jayanti.

The Kartik Purnima (Kartik Sud 15) marks the close of the austerities of *chaturmas* or the four monsoon months starting from Ashadh Sud 15. Devout Jains who have undertaken the austerities of *chaturmas* end them on this day. The day is also obersved as the birthday of Shri Hemchandracharya, the well-known learned Jain *savant* who was born this day of Vikram Samvat 1145.

The Paryushana or Pajushan, the most scared of the Jain festivals is the occasion of continuous religious activities and strict austerities. It is observed by all, high and low. The Shwetambars observe it from Shravan Vad 12 to Bhadrapad Sud 4, the Digambars from Bhadrapad Sud 5 to Sud 14. Complete fasts are enjoined to be undertaken during Paryushana. Those, who cannot fast on all the days, should fast atleast for some days during this *parva*. Everybody fasts on the last day popularly known as Samvatsari, considered to be the most sacred of all days. Samvatsari denotes the annual *pratikraman* or expiation of sins. On this day, as an atonement of his sins, every Jain begs forgiveness of others for any offence that he might have committed during the year gone by. This is known as *khamavavun* or pardon.

The Oli-Siddhachakra Puja (Chaitra and Ashvin Sud 7 to 15) Shwetambars consider this festival next in importance only to the Paryushana and celebrate it for nine days from Sud 7 to *purnima* twice a year in Chaitra and Ashvin. During these days *navpadas*, nine steps represented on the Siddhachakra or Saint's wheel are worshipped in every Shwetambar temple. Partial fast is observed on all these days.

The Mahavir Jayanti (Chaitra Sud 13) is the birth anniversary of Mahavir Swami, the 24th and the last Jain *tirthankar*, born in 599 B.C. Besides religious ceremonies at the temple, processions are taken out with the idol of Mahavir. Digambar Jains also celebrate the Virashasan Jayanti on Shravan Vad 1, the day on which Mahavir after achieving omniscience, gave his first religious sermon.

Jains also observe the Nirvan Kalyanak or the holy anniversary of the *nirvan* of Mahavir on the Divali day (Ashvin Vad 30).

Muslim Festivals

The two sects, Sunnis and Shiahs, have different festivals except Muharram, Ramzan and Bakri-Id festivals, which are common to both. In the beginning of the year comes the month of Muharram, which is held by Shiahs in special veneration as being the month in which Imam Hussain, the son of Ali, was killed. His death is the subject of public mourning during the first ten days when fasting and self-denial are also enjoined. An interesting religious activity in the Muharram festival is the preparing of *taziahs* or *tabuts*, bamboo and tinsel models of the shrine of the *imam* at Karbala. These shrines are taken round in procession on the tenth day and submerged into water of a river or lake. Sweet bread and sugared water are distributed among friends in the evening. Shiahs, unlike Sunnis, keep Muharram for forty days Of these, the first ten are a time of special mourning.

The thirteenth of Safar is known as Tera Tezi or Talan Tezi and kept by Sunnis in memory of the Prophet's recovery from a severe sickness. Another important day is the twelfth of the month of Rabi-ul-Awwal, the *wafat* or day of the Prophet's death. This day is called Id-e-Milad, as it is also the day of the birth of the Prophet, *Id* meaning happiness and *Milad* meaning birth. It is celebrated more as the birth anniversary than as the day of death of the Prophet. The Gyarvi festival falls on the eleventh day of Rabi-us-Sani on which Sunnis celebrate the birth of Saiyad Abdul Kadir Jilani by illuminating their houses and eating *malidah* (powdered sugar bread) at night. On the first eleven nights of Rabi-ul-Awwal in honour of the Prophet's birth, *waazes* (sermons) are preached. Great number attend them and on the eleventh day, charitable people give a morsel of sacred food called *taburruk* to every one present. The Shab-e-Barat which falls on the night of the fourteenth day of Shaaban is among Sunnis characterised by the preparations of special dishes, which are distributed to the poor after the recitation of the *fatiha* (opening chapter of the Quran) and by feasting of friends and relations. Greater than this festival is the Id-ul-Fitr commonly known as Ramzan Id, which falls on the first day of Shawwal Throughout the preceding month of Ramzan a general fast is observed every day from sunrise to sunset, prayers known as *taraveeh* are offered in the mosques and Quran recited during the month. Ramzan Id marks the close of the fast and in consequence, Musalmans - Sunnis and Shiahs - of all ages and both sexes bathe, put on new clothes, apply perfumes, repair to the mosque, and thereafter meet friends and relations and bid them good luck and god-speed The Id-e-Baqr falls on the tenth day of Zilhijja and is characterised, like Ramzan Id, by prayers in mosques. The eighteenth of Zilhijja is a great Shiah holiday known as Id-e-Ghadir or the lake holiday. On this day, the Prophet seated by a lake pr claimed in a joyous moment that Ali was his own flesh and blood. Shiahs also observe the twenty-eighth of Zilhijja as a festival of three days in memory of Baba Shuja-ud-din a fire-worshipping convert to Islam, who on this day murdered the Khalifah Umar.

Pilgrim Places

Except Mul Dwarka in Amreli district, there are no pilgrim places of general attraction for the pilgrims But, Babra in Babra taluka, Pipavav in Rajula taluka, Fattehpur in Amreli taluka and Dhari in Dhari taluka are sacred places of local importance. Followers of Bhoja Bhagat visit Fattehpur and followers of Pipa Bhagat visit Pipavav. Dhari being birth place of Yogiji Maharaj of Swaminarayan sect, it is considered to be holy place for his followers.1

1. For details, see Chapter XIX—Places of Interest.

FAIRS

Fairs are generally associated with deities and religious observances. The following statement gives the names of deities to which the fairs are sacred, month in which they are held and the number of persons participating.

STATEMENT III.11

Fairs According to Deity, Months and Size of Congregation

(In descending order of congregation)

Deity	Month	Total		Below 5,000		5,000 to 9,999		10,000 to 24,999		25,000 to 49,999		50,000 and above	
		No of fairs	Congregation	No of fairs	Congregation	No of fairs	Congregation	No of fairs	Congregation	No of fairs	Congregation	No of fairs	Congregation
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Total ..		27	29,750	27	29,750	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shiva ..	*Total*	*8*	*9,900*	*8*	*9,900*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	June	2	1,400	2	1,400	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	August	6	8,500	6	8,500	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Krishna .	*Total*	*9*	*8,700*	*9*	*8,700*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	May	1	600	1	600	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	August	7	7,450	7	7,450	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	September	1	650	1	650	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hanuman	*Total*	*3*	*5,600*	*3*	*5,600*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	April	2	5,000	2	5,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	September	1	600	1	600	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Muslim Pirs .	Shawwal	1	2,000	1	2,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Shitla Mata ..	August	3	1,750	3	1,750	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mythological Personages	August	1	900	1	900	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mataji ..	August	1	600	1	600	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rama .	April	1	300	1	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

Census of India 1961, Gujarat, Vol. V, Part VII–B, *Fairs and Festivals*, (Part-II, Tables), p. 243

As the statement indicates, the total number of fairs reported in the district every year comes to 27. As many as eighteen of them are held in August/Shravan. The congregation at these fairs varies according to the season and exigencies of agricultural operations. The largest number of fairs 9 are held in reverance to Lord Krishna, who attracts 8,700 devotees. Next in order, 8 fairs are dedicated to Lord Shiva, with a total congregation of 9,900. Other fairs are dedicated to Hanuman, Muslim Pirs, Shitla Mata, Mythological Personages, Mataji and Rama, etc.

The fairs which deserve specific mention are the Janmashtami fair at Dhareshvar, the Hanuman Jayanti (Chaitri Punam) fair, the Bhadarvi Amas fair at Pipavav, and the Brahma Kund fair at Babra. Apart from the usual religious practices of having a dip in the holy waters of the river or sea and reverence to the deity, cultural activities are also organised by the Taluka Development authorities, which arrange seminars, cinema shows, lectures and exhibitions for the visiting public, where posters depicting the development activities are also displayed.

The New Trends

The winds of change are blowing all round under the impact of the Five Year Plans. The changes in dress, ornaments, social customs, food and other habits of the people, their mode of living, the religious beliefs and practices have undergone almost complete transformation. The impact of the cinema is far-reaching and not necessarily healthy. With the diversification of occupations and spread of education, the social barriers have broken down; the rigidity and the rigours of the caste system have crumbled down. As a result, inter-caste and inter-provincial marriages have taken place and the entire society has become sociable except in a few cases where untouchability persists particularly in the rural areas. The social legislation for abolition of untouchability has not made any serious impact in the rural areas. The extension of general and technical education has opened up new vistas of employment on account of the schemes undertaken under the Five Year Plans. Women as a class have shed their shyness and have taken their place alongwith males in Government offices, public undertakings, private business organisations, educational institutions and social organisations. They have shown their competence in various fields and as such, they are not confined to the hearth and home as before. By and large, the people have become politically conscious and take intense interest in the elections whether they are of the Panchayats, State Legislature or of Parliament. With the increase in the agricultural production and high agricultural prices, the purchasing power of agriculturists has increased tremendously with the result that they spend lavishly on social customs, as they never did before. With the introduction of the Panchayati Raj, the farmers have become a political power to reckon with both at the State level and district level as vote-banks.

After Independence, the entire landscape of agricultural economy has changed under the impact of the Five Year Plans. Government has provided financial and technical assistance in the form of agricultural tools and techniques. Land reform measures covering abolition of intermediaries such as Girasdars, Barkhalidars, Mulgirasdars, Watandars, Ankadedars, etc., tenancy reforms providing for security of tenure, regulation of rent and transfer of ownership, the consolidation of holdings and imposition of ceiling on land holdings have cut down the tall poppies in the district and have made most of the tenants land-owners. The concept of private ownership has given the cultivators incentive for investment of capital and labour in the lands under their cultivation. After implementation of the land reforms, there are a few landless agricultural labourers. The condition of farmers has particularly improved in the sugar-growing and cotton-growing areas of Kodinar and other talukas. The co-operative movement, which was started as early as the second decade of this century has helped develop co-operative institutions throughout the district. These co-operatives have provided to the farmers crop loans and other technical assistance needed for agricultural production. It may be noted that large scale industries have not developed in the district. On the whole, however, the economy of the district has undergone considerable change under the impact of the Five Year Plans. Detailed treatment of the new economic trends will be noticed in the chapters that follow.

STATEMENTS

STATEMENT

Census Houses and the uses

Sl. No.	Taluka	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Total No. of Census Houses	Census Houses vacant at the time of House-listing
1	2	3	4	5
	Amreli District ...	T	158,045	16,974
		R	119,734	12,637
		U	38,311	4,337
1	Amreli ...	T	26,885	3,552
		R	15,154	1,976
		U	11,731	1,576
2	Kunkavav-Vadia ...	T	21,082	1,549
		R	15,447	1,083
		U	5,635	466
3	Babra ...	T	12,833	1,799
		R	10,869	1,657
		U	1,964	142
4	Lathi ..	T	16,637	1,832
		R	12,305	1,301
		U	4,332	531
5	Lilia ...	T	10,123	1,805
		R	8,970	1,613
		U	1,153	192
6	Dhari ...	T	17,213	1,763
		R	14,354	1,561
		U	2,859	202
7	Khambha* ...	R	6,150	717
8	Rajula ...	T	18,839	1,679
		R	14,228	1,206
		U	4,611	473
9	Jafrabad ...	T	9,460	995
		R	6,835	650
		U	2,625	345
10	Kodinar ..	T	18,823	1,283
		R	15,422	873
		U	3,401	410

Source :

Census of India 1961, Vol. V, Part IV—B, *Housing and Establishment Tables*, Gujarat pp. 8-11

* Entirely rural

III-12

to which they are put

Occupied Census Houses used as				
Dwellings				
Dwellings	Shop-*cum*-dwellings	Workshop-*cum*-dwellings	Non-dwellings	Others
6	7	8	9	10
115,893	694	1,231	11,928	11,325
89,927	558	919	6,861	8,832
25,966	136	312	5,067	2,493
19,209	168	120	2,327	1,509
11,505	84	118	888	583
7,704	84	2	1,439	926
14,951	76	335	1,849	2,322
11,180	67	75	996	2,046
3,771	9	260	853	276
9,256	94	111	779	794
7,817	90	99	511	695
1,439	4	12	268	99
11,964	33	55	1,166	1,587
8,969	29	39	609	1,358
2,995	4	16	557	229
7,397	3	24	741	153
6,613	3	24	588	129
784	..	..	153	24
13,443	71	134	1,350	452
11,351	66	134	934	308
2,092	5	..	416	144
4,825	13	25	467	103
14,494	87	39	1,526	1,014
11,270	82	37	815	818
3,224	5	2	711	196
7,231	33	32	530	639
5,388	27	32	333	405
1,843	6	..	197	234
13,123	116	356	1,193	2,752
11,009	97	336	720	2,387
2,114	19	20	473	365

STATEMENT

Distribution of Sample Households Living in Census Houses used wholly

Material of Roof

Sl. No.	Taluka	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Predominant Material of Wall: Total No. of House-holds	Grass Leaves, Reeds or Bamboo	Timber
1	2	3	4	5	6
	Amreli District ...	T	23,619	258	181
		R	18,319	246	2
		U	5,300	12	179
1	Amreli	T	3,904	4	..
		R	2,342	..	..
		U	1,562	4	..
2	Kunkavav-Vadia	T	3,076	..	162
		R	2,266	..	..
		U	810	..	162
3	Babra	T	1,895	..	..
		R	1,603	.	..
		U	292	..	..
4	Lathi	T	2,415	3	17
		R	1,809	3	..
		U	606	..	17
5	Lilia ...	T	1,486	2	..
		R	1,329	2	..
		U	157	..	..
6	Dhari	T	2,734	60	..
		R	2,313	57	..
		U	421	3	..
7	Khambha*	R	973	32	2
8	Rajula ..	T	2,929	4	..
		R	2,281	4	..
		U	648	..	..
9	Jafrabad ..	T	1,463	..	..
		R	1,091	..	..
		U	372	.	..
10	Kodinar ..	T	2,744	153	..
		R	2,312	148	..
		U	432	5	..

Source :

Census of India 1961, Vol V, Part IV—B, *Housing and Establishment Tables*, Gujarat, pp. 480–483.

* Entirely rural

III-13

or partly as Dwelling by Predominant Material of Wall and Predominant

(Based on 20 per cent Sample)

Predominant Material of Wall				
Mud	Unburnt Bricks	Burnt Bricks	C. I. sheets or other metal sheets	Stone
7	8	9	10	11
14,100	803	1,627	136	6,197
12,256	630	709	9	4,351
1,844	173	918	127	1,846
2,825	48	686	2	334
2,059	39	158	..	83
766	9	528	2	251
1,785	325	306	83	140
1,654	195	182	1	127
131	130	124	82	13
1,631	72	40	2	150
1,413	56	32	2	100
218	16	8	..	50
2,145	10	77	6	152
1,732	4	21	3	46
413	6	56	3	106
1,391	..	12	..	81
1,259	..	10	..	58
132	..	2	..	23
2,184	8	235	39	200
2,009	7	135	..	105
175	1	100	39	95
875	5	8	..	51
1,029	253	155	3	1,481
1,022	242	55	3	952
7	11	100	..	529
147	79	104	..	1,133
147	79	104	..	761
..	..	..	..	372
88	3	4	1	2,475
86	3	4	..	2,068
2	..	..	1	407

. STATEMENT

Predominant Material of Wall

Sl. No.	Taluka		Total/ Rural/ Urban	Cement concrete	All other material
1	2		3	12	13
	Amreli District	...	T	13	304
			R	2	114
			U	11	190
1	Amreli	...	T	3	2
			R	1	2
			U	2	..
2	Kunkavav-Vadia	...	T	..	275
			R	..	107
			U	..	168
3	Babra	...	T	..	..
			R	.	.
			U	..	..
4	Lathi	...	T	5	..
			R	..	..
			U	5	..
5	Lilia	...	T	..	..
			R	..	.
			U	..	
6	Dhari	.	T	3	5
			R	..	..
			U	3	5
7	Khambha *	...	R	..	..
8	Rajula	...	T	1	3
			R	1	2
			U	..	1
9	Jafrabad	.	T	..	..
			R	.	..
			U	..	..
10	Kodinar	...	T	1	19
			R	..	3
			U	1	16

Source:

Census of India 1961, Vol. V, Part IV—B, pp. 480–483.

* Entirely Rural

III.13—*contd.*

Predominant Material of Roof						
Grass Leaves, Reeds, Thatch, Wood or Bamboo	Tiles, slate, shingle	Corrugated iron, zinc or other metal sheets	Asbestos, cement sheets	Brick and lime	Concrete and stone	All other material
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
514	22,652	110	32	2	291	18
407	17,833	17	14	..	37	11
107	4,819	93	18	2	254	7
50	3,793	19	8	..	34	..
4	2,323	1	8	..	6	..
46	1,470	18	..	..	28	..
10	3,043	9	..	..	11	3
6	2,254	2	..	..	4	..
4	789	7	..	..	7	3
14	1,870	3	2	..	4	2
11	1,586	2	..	..	2	2
3	284	1	2	..	2	..
6	2,382	1	..	2	23	1
2	1,805	..	..	..	1	8
4	577	1	..	2	22	..
3	1,480	..	2	..	1	..
3	1,323	..	2	..	1	..
..	157	..	..	..	..	..
98	2,568	46	8	..	10	4
84	2,218	5	..	..	2	4
14	350	41	8	..	8	..
73	899	..	..	..	1	..
101	2,784	9	1	..	33	1
89	2,185	5	1	..	..	1
12	599	4	..	..	33	..
39	1,392	1	..	..	27	4
19	1,070	..	..	..	2	..
20	322	1	..	..	25	4
120	2,441	22	11	..	147	3
116	2,170	2	3	..	18	3
4	271	20	8	..	129	..

STATEMENT

Sample Households Classified by Number of

(Based on 20

Sl. No.	Taluka	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Total No. of house-holds	Total No. of members: Males	Total No. of members: Females
1	2	3	4	5	6
	Amreli District ...	T	23,619	69,403	67,569
		R	18,319	54,211	52,698
		U	5,300	15,192	14,871
1	Amreli	T	3,904	11,592	11,069
		R	2,342	6,895	6,701
		U	1,562	4,697	4,368
2	Kunkavav-Vadia ...	T	3,076	9,472	9,276
		R	2,266	7,181	6,968
		U	810	2,291	2,308
3	Babra	T	1,895	5,634	5,453
		R	1,603	4,852	4,651
		U	292	782	802
4	Lathi	T	2,415	7,009	6,943
		R	1,809	5,284	5,225
		U	606	1,725	1,718
5	Lilia . ..	T	1,486	4,208	4,202
		R	1,329	3,788	3,743
		U	157	420	459
6	Dhari	T	2,734	8,181	8,042
		R	2,313	6,973	6,887
		U	421	1,208	1,155
7	Khambha * .	R	973	2,971	2,831
8	Rajula ..	T	2,929	8,630	8,204
		R	2,281	6,754	6,356
		U	648	1,876	1,848
9	Jafrabad	T	1,463	4,012	3,896
		R	1,091	2,951	2,835
		U	372	1,061	1,061
10	Kodinar . ..	T	2,744	7,694	7,653
		R	2,312	6,562	6,501
		U	432	1,132	1,152

Source :

Census of India 1961, Vol. V, Part IV—B, *Housing and Establishment Tables*, Gujarat pp. 510-513.

* Entirely Rural

III.14

Members and By Number of Rooms Occupied

per cent Sample)

Total No. of rooms	Households with no regular room			Households with one room		
	No. of house-holds	Number of members		No. of house-holds	Number of members	
		Males	Females		Males	Females
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
35,172	**7**	**19**	**14**	**15,816**	**40,931**	**39,891**
26,660	**6**	**17**	**12**	**12,439**	**32,654**	**31,780**
8,512	**1**	**2**	**2**	**3,377**	**8,277**	**8,111**
6,104	3	10	7	2,456	6,236	5,965
3,670	2	8	5	1,454	3,645	3,586
2,434	1	2	2	1,002	2,591	2,379
5,151	..		..	1,711	4,379	4,190
3,863	..		..	1,196	3,155	2,966
1,288	..	.	.	515	1,224	1,224
2,911	..	..	..	1,193	3,090	3,020
2,432	.	.	..	1,013	2,698	2,608
479	..		..	180	392	412
3,656	1	1	..	1,555	3,968	3,934
2,746	1	1	.	1,158	2,974	2,978
910	..		.	397	994	956
2,129	2	2	3	1,000	2,540	2,571
1,881	2	2	3	904	2,319	2,325
248	..	..	..	96	221	246
4,105	..	.	..	1,781	4,553	4,498
3,482	..		..	1,495	3,879	3,842
623	..	.	..	286	674	656
1,334	..	..	..	716	1,947	1,839
4,063	1	6	4	2,119	5,593	5,398
3,154	1	6	4	1,649	4,406	4,177
909	..	..	..	470	1,187	1,221
2,059	..	..	..	1,113	2,834	2,748
1,323	..	..	.	902	2,334	2,239
736	..	..	..	211	500	509
3,660	..	..	..	2,172	5,791	5,728
2,775	.	..	..	1,952	5,297	5,220
885	..	..	..	220	494	508

STATEMENT

Sample Households Classified By Number of

(Based on 20

Sl No.	Taluka	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Households with two rooms: No of house-holds	Households with two rooms: No. of members: Males	Households with two rooms: No. of members: Females
1	2	3	14	15	16
	Amreli District	T	**5,635**	**18,982**	**18,679**
		R	**4,315**	**14,742**	**14,392**
		U	**1,320**	**4,240**	**4,287**
1	Amreli	T	994	3,357	3,237
		R	595	2,030	1,958
		U	399	1,327	1,279
2	Kunkavav-Vadia	T	934	3,177	3,175
		R	736	2,548	2,541
		U	198	629	634
3	Babra	T	510	1,714	1,640
		R	435	1,494	1,397
		U	75	220	243
4	Lathi	T	624	2,066	2,045
		R	468	1,555	1,493
		U	156	511	552
5	Lilia	T	391	1,243	1,213
		R	348	1,113	1,071
		U	43	130	142
6	Dhari	T	698	2,440	2,439
		R	596	2,083	2,089
		U	102	357	350
7	Khambha*	R	197	738	719
8	Rajula	T	613	2,066	2,008
		R	487	1,636	1,572
		U	126	430	436
9	Jafrabad	T	252	814	809
		R	157	519	506
		U	95	295	303
10	Kodinar	T	422	1,367	1,394
		R	296	1,026	1,046
		U	126	341	348

* Entirely Rural

III.14—*contd.*

Members and By Number of Rooms Occupied

per cent Sample)

Households with three rooms			Households with four rooms			Households with five rooms or more		
No. of house-holds	No. of members		No. of house-holds	No. of members		No. of house-holds	No. of members	
	Males	Females		Males	Females		Males	Females
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1,269	5,066	4,864	571	2,647	2,504	321	1,758	1,617
983	3,989	3,806	394	1,824	1,749	182	985	959
286	1,077	1,058	177	823	755	139	773	658
275	1,105	1,081	111	485	450	65	399	329
191	776	742	67	283	257	33	153	153
84	329	339	44	202	193	32	246	176
262	1,084	1,037	106	496	537	63	336	337
210	854	811	78	379	400	46	245	250
52	230	226	28	117	137	17	91	87
114	479	457	58	239	239	20	112	97
95	391	376	48	194	204	12	75	66
19	88	81	10	45	35	8	37	31
143	548	525	63	276	293	29	150	146
117	458	448	44	198	201	21	98	105
26	90	77	19	78	92	8	52	41
48	184	207	37	162	138	8	77	70
38	149	171	31	139	115	6	66	58
10	35	36	6	23	23	2	11	12
162	686	630	60	296	273	33	206	202
143	618	559	52	252	236	27	141	161
19	68	71	8	44	37	6	65	41
34	140	135	16	73	77	10	73	61
121	500	453	52	360	249	23	105	92
88	383	343	39	233	186	17	90	74
33	117	110	13	127	63	6	15	18
42	132	116	26	83	89	30	149	134
23	73	63	7	13	18	2	12	9
19	59	53	19	70	71	28	137	125
68	208	223	42	177	159	40	151	149
44	147	158	12	60	55	8	32	22
24	61	65	30	117	104	32	119	127

PART IV-ECONOMIC ORGANISATION

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

As in other parts of Gujarat, agriculture is an important means of subsistence for the majority of people in this district. It is not only the most important occupation of the people but almost a way of life for them. As recorded by the former Baroda State Gazetteer (1923), the proportion of people dependent on agriculture was 589 persons in every 1,000 persons or 58·9 per cent of the population. This percentage has increased to 74·23 in 1961. It is considerably higher than the State figure of 68.09 per cent and the highest among all the districts of the peninsular Gujarat according to the Census of 1961. The break-up of persons engaged in agriculture in the district in 1961 was as follows:—

Persons Engaged in Agriculture

	Total	Males	Females
As cultivators .. .	175,683	101,940	73,743
As agricultural labourers	44,111	24,380	19,731
Total	**219,794**	**126,320**	**93,474**

Source:

District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli.

The statement given above indicates that of the total number of persons engaged in agriculture, 175,683 or 79.93 per cent were cultivators and only 44,111 or 20·07 per cent were agricultural labourers. These figures approximate to the figures for the State as a whole, where the cultivators accounted for 78·31 per cent of the total engaged in the cultivation of land and 21·69 per cent as agricultural labourers.

The chief cultivating classes in the district in order of merit are among Hindus, Kanbis, Sathvaras, Rajputs, Ahirs, Mers, Kolis and Vaghers and among Musalmans, Memons, Ghanchis, Vohoras and Sindhis. Of these, the best cultivators, as in other districts, are the Kanbis. Their sole occupation is tilling the land, and they are most hard working. The more Kanbis a village has, the more prosperous it is and the better tilled are its lands. The Kanbis are generally well-to-do and better clad than their neighbours. The talukawise break-up of persons engaged in agriculture both as cultivators and as labourers is given in the following statement.

STATEMENT IV.1

Persons Engaged in Agriculture, 1961 (talukawise)

Taluka/Mahal 1	Cultiva-tors 2	Percen-tage 3	Agricul-tural labourers 4	Percent-age 5	Total agricultural population 6
Amreli district	**175,683**	**79.93**	**44,111**	**20.07**	**219,794**
1 Amreli taluka	25,883	81 02	6,065	18.98	31,948
2. Kunkavav-Vadia taluka	26,146	86 38	4,124	13.62	30,270
3 Babra taluka ..	19,131	82.51	4,054	17.49	23,185
4. Lathi taluka ..	16,048	81 23	3,709	18.77	19,757
5. Lilia mahal	12,391	79 48	3,200	20 52	15,591
6. Dhari taluka ..	20,859	81 04	4,879	18 96	25,738
7. Khambha mahal ..	7,873	72.12	3,044	27.88	10,917
8. Rajula mahal .	20,281	78 25	5,636	21 75	25.917
9. Jafrabad mahal . .	7,623	71.92	2,977	28 08	10,600
10. Kodinar taluka	19,448	75 17	6,423	24.83	25,871

Source :
District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli

The statement shows that the proportion of agricultural labourers to the total agricultural workers was the highest (28·08 per cent) in Jafrabad mahal and the lowest (13·62 per cent) in Kunkavav-Vadia taluka.

Besides agriculture, a number of allied occupations provided livelihood to a large number of people, as seen from the following table:—

Population Engaged in Allied Agricultural Occupations, 1961

Allied Agricultural Occupations 1	Total 2	Males 3	Females 4
1. Field produce and plantation crops	825	537	288
2. Forestry and logging	137	86	51
3. Fishing	1,381	1,242	139
4. Livestock and hunting	8.735	6,432	2,303

Source·
District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli

From the above table, it appears that the people get maximum employment by maintenance of livestock (cows and bullocks, sheep, goats, etc.). Next to livestock, fishing on the coastal areas particularly Jafrabad and Kodinar provides employment to a large number. Since sugar-cane is widely grown in and around Kodinar and groundnut, cotton and *bajri* in other areas a large number of people get employment in allied agricultural operations. Lastly, as Dhari and Khambha areas are situated on the border of Gir forest people get employment in forest exploitation.

LAND UTILISATION

Land is a scarce resource. The utilisation of land resource is, therefore, central to any programme of economic planning in the agricultural economic of India. It shows the various land uses.

The following are the figures of land utilisation in Amreli district during the years 1955-56, 1960-61 and 1965-66 :—

STATEMENT IV.2

Land Utilisation

(AREA IN '00 HECTARES)

Item	1955-56		1960-61		1965-66	
	Area in hectares	Percentage of total area	Area in hectares	Percentage of total area	Area in hectares	Percentage of total area
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total area for land utilisation purposes ..	3,993	100 00	6,702	100 00	6,420	100.00
1. Forests	257	6.44	210	3.13	288	4.49
2. Land put to non-agricultural uses	129	3 23	103	1.54	200	3.12
3. Barren and unculturable land	488	12 22	453	6.76	24	0.37
4. Permanent pastures and other grazing lands	251	6 29	550	8 21	503	7.83
5. Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in net area sown	..	.	4	0 06	..	..
6. Culturable waste .. .	135	3 38	207	3 09	145	2.26
7. Current fallows	71	1.78	129	1 92	143	2 23
8. Other fallows	227	5.68	170	2 54	34	0 53
9. Net area sown	2,435	60 98	4,876	72.75	5,083	79 17
10. Area sown more than once ..	66	1.65	54	0 81	102	1.59
11. Total cropped area	2,501	62.63	4,930	73.56	5,185	80.76

Source:
Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

Before analysing the above statement, it is necessary to point out that the statistics of 1955-56 are not comparable with those of 1960-61 because certain areas from the neighbouring districts of Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh were merged in the former Amreli district in 1959. The area of the district was practically doubled. However, as there was no change in the territorial composition after 1959 the data of the year 1960-61 permit of comparison with those of the year 1965-66. The district as a whole encounters scarcity conditions due to scanty rainfall.

The analysis of the data reveals that the forest area comprised 4·49 per cent of the total area of the district in 1965-66. The forest is located only in the Gir areas jutting into the district. There is increasing non-agricultural activity (construction of houses, factories, commercial houses, etc.) and the area under non-agricultural uses has increased from 1·54 per cent in 1960-61 to 3·12 per cent in 1965-66. However, considerable reduction is found in the area classed as barren and unculturable land. Here the reduction is from 6·76 per cent to 0·37 per cent during the five year period. The area under other fallows has also diminished from 2·54 per cent to 0·53 per cent during that period. The reduction may be explained by the fact that the net area sown has increased from 72·75 per cent to 79·17 per cent. Lastly, the total cropped area has also increased from 73·36 per cent to 80·76 per cent during the five year period. To sum up, under the impact of the Five Year Plans, the agricultural and non-agricultural activities have shown a pronounced upward trend.

Irrigation

The main sources of irrigation in the district are wells and Government canals. In 1965-66, only 8·44 per cent of the cultivated area was under irrigation, the wells providing irrigation to 92·77 per cent of the area irrigated Wells are widespread. But greater part of Lathi, Babra, Liliya and Jafrabad are solely dependent on them (wells) Canal irrigation is mainly limited to Amreli and Kodinar talukas.

Irrigation facilities in Amreli district were not adequate at the time when the old Gazetteer was written. Most of the water tanks went dry after the close of the cold season and were not useful for irrigation. The State, therefore, constructed a few irrigation tanks with small distributing channels such as Thebi, Kumbhnath, Dhamel, Pichhvi and Bhimagaja in this district, which provided irrigation to a very small area.

The important irrigation projects in the district are described below:-

Major Irrigation Projects

Khodiar Dam

The most important irrigation project in the district is Khodiar dam constructed across the river Shetrunji in Dhari taluka near the temple of the Khodiar Mata. It is a masonry-cum-earthen dam, 29 metres in height and 497 metres in length with 6 metres top-width. The river Shetrunji, the second biggest river in the Saurashtra region, originates in Chanchai hills in Gir forest flowing through hilly areas about 1½ kms. and thereafter debouching in plains before ultimately meeting the Gulf of Cambay.

The project was mooted originally in 1883 by the Baroda State in whose enclaves the project lay during those days. After the merger of the

Baroda State in the Bombay State, the project was further investigated by the Government of Bombay. Detailed investigations of the dam site, weir site and canals were carried out during the First Five Year Plan period. But the actual construction work was started in 1959 and completed in 1967.

The dam has been constructed near Dhari to impound 40 million cubic metres of water with a pick-up-weir at village Medhi about 20 kms. downstream. Canals from the pick-up-weir at Medhi are expected to irrigate an area of 7,689 hectares of seasonal and perennial crops in a year of normal rainfall. It is located in those areas of Amreli district where irrigation facilities do not exist on a reasonable scale and where an irrigation project of this type was a long felt need. The areas benefited cover the land known as *kharapat* in Amreli and Dhari talukas.

It has proved beneficial to khaif crops like paddy and rabi crops like wheat and pulses resulting in additional food production of about 3,861 tonnes valued at Rs. 17.22 lakhs. It will bring a net return of 1 per cent after tenth year of completion of the project. It is estimated to bring additional revenue of Rs. 2.41 lakhs per year.

The areas irrigated by the dam between 1963-64 and 1968-69 are as follows:—

Year					Area in hectares
1963-64		.	..		386
1964-65	...	...	...	...	862
1965-66	..	..	..		2,310
1966-67	.	.	...	.	2,093
1967-68	..	..	.	..	6,007
1968-69	..	...	...	..	7,154

MEDIUM IRRIGATION PROJECTS

Munjiasar Dam

The Munjiasar dam is an earthen dam and is situated across the river Satali near Bagasara in the Kunkavav taluka. The scheme was taken up in the First Five Year Plan. Construction of the dam was started in 1954 and completed in 1956. Ancillary canals and distributories were completed in 1958. The estimated cost of the construction work was Rs. 47.78 lakhs.

The project fulfils the long felt need for irrigation in the surrounding areas and benefits 3,480 hectares of land in the district. It has greatly benefited crops like paddy and sugar-cane. It is estimated that the project will result in producing 1,422 tonnes of additional food production every year. Its net revenue has been estimated at about Rs. 21,000.

The dam is earthen one, 4,938 metres long and 20 metres high with 5 metres top-width. Its storage capacity is 15 million cubic metres of water, and its irrigation potential is 1,700 hactares. The details about the area actually irrigated since the completion of the dam and its canals are given below:—

Year	Hectares	Year	Hectares
1958-59	416	1963-64	401
1959-60	806	1964-65	1,018
1960-61	966	1965-66	1,524
1961-62	692	1966-67	339
1962-63	761	1967-68	1,446
		1968-69	1,279

Minor Irrigation Schemes

Minor irrigation projects have an important role to play in the development of agriculture, as they are quick and cheap to construct. Besides, such schemes extend facilities to areas where major or medium irrigation schemes are not feasible. Lastly their maintenance by beneficiaries and village panchayats is easy and convenient. The programme of minor irrigation comprises irrigation by wells, tanks, lakes and pumps.

A number of minor irrigation works were executed during the three Plan periods in the district Before 1951, there were 5 projects with an irrigation potential of 671 hectares, their approximate cost being Rs. 4.88 lakhs. Between 1951 and 1956, only one project was completed involving an expenditure of Rs. 11.90 lakhs raising the irrigation potential to 995 hectares. But the scheme gathered real momentum during the Second Five Year Plan period when 5 projects were completed at a total cost of Rs. 17.28 lakhs creating an irrigation potential of 1,809 hectares. The number of minor irrigation projects increased from 6 to 11 during the Second Plan and further to 17 during the Third, creating an estimated irrigation potential of 4,063 hectares at a total cost of Rs. 50.79 lakhs. The following statement gives a summary of the progress made in irrigation facilities till the end of Third Five Year Plan.—

Irrigation Programme, 1951-66

Period	Catchment area in sq. kms	Cost incurred in lakhs of Rs	Gross capacity added in m.cu.m.	Irrigation potential in hectares
1	2	3	4	5
Before 1951	153	4 88	11	671
During First Five Year Plan	52	11 90	2	324
During Second Five Year Plan	160	17 28	9	1,809
During Third Five Year Plan	175	16 73	5	1,259
Total	**540**	**50 79**	**27**	**4,063**

Source

Executive Engineer, Panchayat Division, Amreli.

The Statement IV.3 given at the end of the chapter shows details about the minor irrigation schemes in the district.

The statement reveals that there are 7 small tanks and 10 dams, built across the rivers, in the district. Out of them, Lathi, and Dhari talukas claim 4 each, Khambha 3, Babra and Amreli 2 and Kodinar and Rajula 1 each. Five tanks were built, costing from Rs. 32,000 to about Rs. 200,000, before Independence, during the first quarter of the present century by the princely States. Of the remaining 12, one was constructed during the First Five Year Plan, 7 were built during the Second Five Year Plan and 4 during the Third Five Year Plan. These irrigation schemes can provide total irrigation to over 4,000 hectares of land in the district. The construction cost of two of these schemes, namely, Zolapuri scheme in Rajula taluka and Kalubhar in Babra taluka, amounted to more than Rs. 11 lakhs each. The remainder involved a cost varying from Rs. 32,000 to Rs. 5.35 lakhs. The oldest existing tank is Pichhvi tank in Kodinar taluka.

Area Irrigated

Sources of Water Supply

The total area of crops irrigated in 1965-66 was 42,877 hectares which formed 8·44 per cent of the net area under cultivation. The following statement shows area irrigated by different sources of water supply in the district between 1950-51 and 1965-66.—

Area Irrigated by Sources

(Area in '00 hectares)

Sources	1950-51*	1955-56*	1960-61*	1965-66†
Government Canals .		3	13	28
Private Canals .	.	1		.
Tanks .	1	2	2	3
Wells .	136	164	336	398
Other Sources .		.	1	
Total . . .	137	170	352	429

Source :
*Basic Agricultural Statistics, Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad, (1968), p. 41.
†Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

It will appear from the above statement that the well irrigation continues to be the most important source of irrigation providing irrigation to 92·77 per cent of the net area under irrigation in the year 1965-66. Wells thus still remain the main source of irrigation supplemented by canals and tanks wherever available. Canal irrigation takes place mostly by gravitational flow, while in the case of wells, *kos* and other water-lifting devices are for the most part manually operated with the aid of bullocks. Increasing use of oil and electric power is being made by cultivators in the district for lifting and pumping water from the wells for irrigation purposes. These devices are proving more economical and easy to handle in the long run, though the initial capital expenditure involved in the purchase of oil-engine, electric motor and pump is quite large

Irrigation facilities available during 1965-66 are given below for each of the talukas of the district.

STATEMENT IV.4

Sources of Water Supply and Area Irrigated, 1965-66

Sl. No. 1	Taluka/ Mahal 2	(In numbers) Canals Govern-ment 3	Canals Private 4	Private Wells Masonry 5	Private Wells Non-masonry 6	Tanks 7	Oil-engines 8	(In hectares) Net area irrigated by Govern-ment canals 9	Tanks 10	Wells 11	Other sources 12	Total 13
	District Total ..	**19**	**1**	**15,636**	**14,037**	**87**	**7,510**	**2,817**	**242**	**39,793**	**25**	**42,877**
1.	Amreli ...	2		2,495	3,109	2	289	1,986	31	4,872	...	6,889
2.	Babra	.	...	1,601	899	.	593	.	...	6,089	...	6,089
3	Dhari	1	1	1,250	2,150	70	448	85	...	3,409	...	3,494
4	Jafrabad		.	274	692		96	. .	...	733	...	733
5.	Khambha	2	. .	451	712	. .	141	208	...	462	25	695
6.	Kunkavav-Vadia ..	7	. .	3,161	1,399	1	997	130	...	3,693	...	3,823
7.	Kodinar	2	...	3,200	393	1	3,500	40	...	10,132	...	10,172
8.	Lathi	...		790	2,361	4	886	...	211	6,201	...	6,412
9.	Lilia	...	.	561	1,334		260	...	...	1,123	...	1,123
10.	Rajula	5	. .	1,853	988	9	300	368	...	3,079	...	3,447

Source :

Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

Of the total cultivated area of over 5.08 lakh hectares, nearly 42,877 hectares or 8.44 per cent of land were under irrigation in 1965-66, of which 2,817 hectares were under canal irrigation. Out of 20 canals, 19 are Government canals. Of them, Kunkavav-Vadia has the highest number of seven, followed by five canals in Rajula. Amreli, Khambha and Kodinar have two canals each.

In the case of the private wells, Amreli taluka claims the highest number (5,604), followed by Kunkavav (4,560) and Kodinar (3,593) while the Jafrabad has the lowest number of wells.

Kodinar again claims the highest number of oil-engines (3,500) followed by 997 in Kunkavav and 886 in Lathi. Jafrabad again has the lowest number of oil-engines in the district.

Naturally, Kodinar has the maximum area of 10,172 hectares under irrigation followed by Amreli (6,889 hectares), Lathi (6,412 hectares) and Babra (6,089 hectares). Khambha has the least irrigated area (695 hectares) in the district. Thus there is need to provide irrigational facilities in Jafrabad, Khambha and Lilia.

The following statement compares area of food crops and non-food crops irrigated between 1950-51 and 1965-66:—

STATEMENT IV.5

Area under Irrigated Crops

(IN '00 HECTARES)

Crops	1950-51*	1955-56*	1960-61*	1965-66†
1	2	3	4	5
Total food crops	113	145	291	334
Rice	26	9	42	19
Wheat	48	75	129	159
Jowar	12	11	34	46
Bajri	2	5	.	6
Maize	..	1	2	2
Total cereals	*88*	*101*	*207*	*232*
Total pulses	*3*	..	..	..
Total food grains	*91*	*101*	*207*	*232*
Sugar-cane	11	17	48	71
Other food crops	11	27	36	31
Total non-food crops ...	*30*	*32*	*69*	*95*
Groundnut .. .	.	1	4	..
Rape and mustard ..	4	..	..	..
Castor . .	.	..	1	.
Cotton		..	..	23
Other non-food crops ...	26	31	64	72
Total area under irrigated crops	*143*	*177*	*360*	*429*

Source :
* Basic Agricultural Statistics, Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad, (1968), pp 58-61.
† Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

The principal irrigated food crop in the district is wheat. The talukawise figures are given in Statement IV.6 at the end of the Chapter. Irrigated wheat is mainly grown in Amreli, Lathi, Babra, Kunkavav and Dhari *Jowar* is generally grown for fodder purpose. However, in Rajula, Jafrabad, Babra and part of Kodinar, it is grown for grain purpose also. As regards sugar-cane, Kodinar tops the list.

SOIL CONSERVATION

The physical basis of all agricultural activities is soil which needs to be properly preserved. Extensive soil erosion due to action of rain-water in the monsoon and strong winds in summer has led to a deterioration of the fertility of land. Erosion by wind occurs in coastal areas, if there is no protective vegetation. It also occurs by denudation of forest areas as a result of ruthless cutting and grazing. It is estimated that nearly ¼th of the cultivable land in the district was affected by erosion. To prevent soil erosion, conservation schemes were introduced as far back as 1959, when a special sub-division for soil conservation was set up under the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer at Amreli. He works under the control of the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Bhavnagar Division, Bhavnagar.

The programme of soil conservation aims at preservation of the fertility of land and conservation of moisture. Various schemes of soil conservation include (1) contour-bunding, (2) afforestation, (3) reclamation of land (4) *nala*-plugging, (5) *kotar* reclamation and (6) terracing. Out of these only the contour-bunding is being implemented in this district. Under the scheme, the slopy and unlevelled fields are bunded to retain and conserve rain-water. The contour-bunding not only prevents the fine layer of good soils being washed away but also improves the moisture content of the soil by holding and allowing water to sink deep into the ground. By conservation of water and regulation of the run-off, the top soil which is otherwise washed away, is thus retained. This scheme is enforced under the provisions of Bombay Land Improvement Schemes Act, 1942. Accordingly, a Land Improvement Board is constituted with Collector as Chairman and District Agricultural Officer and District Development Officer as members and Divisional Soil Conservation Officer as Secretary. Cultivators have to apply to the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, who is in-charge of the district schemes for initiating the scheme in their areas. The scheme can be initiated if atleast 51 per cent of the landowners have agreed to the proposal.

After getting the necessary sanction from the Divisional or Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, the land is surveyed and contour-plan prepared. The alignments of bunds are approved by the Divisional

or Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer concerned and the draft scheme of the project is then prepared by the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, and approved by the Board. The final plans and estimates are prepared by Agricultural Supervisor and sanctioned by the Divisional or Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer concerned. The cost of contour-bunding comes to about Rs. 50 per acre. Subsidy is granted at 25 per cent of the total cost which is arrived at by adding 33⅓ per cent as establishment charges to the actual cost of the scheme. After deducting the subsidy, the balance is treated as loan. The loan is recoverable in 15 equal annual instalments at 6¼ per cent interest. Recovery is made by the Revenue Department. During the decade between 1959 and 1969, about 31,620 hectares have been contour-bunded at a cost of Rs. 17.82 lakhs as shown below:—

Contour Bunding, 1959-60 to 1968-69

Year	Areas of land bunded in hectares	Cost incurred in Rs.
1959-60	3,958	154,138
1960-61	4,069	260,983
1961-62	2,418	155,604
1962-63	6,350	380,326
1963-64	4,409	208,120
1964-65	3,035	102,862
1965-66	3,654	171,078
1966-67	1,227	192,664
1967-68	1,157	96,557
1968-69 (Upto November, 1968)	1,343	59,950
Total	31,620	1,782,282

Source :

Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Amreli

SOILS

The soils in Amreli district may be classified into three main categories (i) medium black, (ii) coastal alluvial and (iii) rocky soils. A major portion of the district is covered by the medium black soil which is considered very productive. It is rich in lime, magnesia and alumina but poor in phosphorus, nitrogen and organic matters. It can retain considerable moisture and is much suitable for agriculture. The coastal alluvial soil is found on the coastal areas of Kodinar, Jafrabad and Rajula. Among the whole of the coastal areas, the land is sandy. Kodinar situated as it is in the middle of the fertile strip of land called Nagher has productive soils.

However, the soils in Rajula and Jafrabad are less productive as they are saline. The soils in the northern part of the district including Babra and parts of Kunkavav-Vadia and Dhari talukas are shallow and rocky. Certain portions of Lathi, Lilia and Amreli talukas have alkaline soils. Certain areas in Amreli taluka known as *kharapat* are poor in cultivation; but this taluka possesses the best land along the north and the south banks of the Shetrunji. The soil of Dhari taluka is lighter and near the Gir forest, redder. The soil on the southern part of the district is light in colour with only few fertile gradients, and in many places, it is rocky and barren.

Cropping Pattern

The total area under cultivation in 1965-66 was 518,547 hectares of which food crops claimed 40·48 per cent and non-food crops 59·52 per cent There is thus a preponderance of non-food crops over food crops. There has been a marked increase in recent years in the growth of non-food or cash crops (groundnut and cotton) the area under which has risen from about 62,200 hectares to 262,600 hectares between 1950-51 and 1960-61. About 50 years ago the agricultural conditions were quite different As the Gazetteer of Baroda State (1923) recorded the food crops formed as much as 60·37 per cent, while the non-food crops formed only 39·63 per cent of the total area under cultivation during 1920-21 The largest area was occupied by cotton, followed by *bajri* and *jowar* The area under cotton has slowly and gradually gone down and its place has been now taken by another important cash crop, namely, groundnut which was mentioned by the Baroda Gazetteer as a crop only 'sparsely grown'. This shows that food crops are being replaced by non-food crops

Food crops can be divided into cereals and pulses. Among cereals, the main crops are *bajri* and wheat. *Jowar* is mainly grown for fodder except in parts of Babra, Rajula and Jafrabad talukas where it is grown for grain purposes. The area under paddy is negligible and is grown under irrigation by few cultivators just to meet their own requirements. *Adad*, gram and *mag* constitute the principal varieties among pulses. Among non-food crops, groundnut, sesamum and cotton predominate. Cultivation of such crops as barley, *tur*, tobacco, garlic, etc., is either totally absent or negligible due to inadequacy of rains and poor soils.

Areas under different crops during 1950-51, 1955-56, 1960-61 and 1965-66 are given in the statement below.

STATEMENT IV.7

Area under Principal Crops for the Years 1950-51, 1955-56, 1960-61 and 1965-66

(IN '00 HECTARES)

Crops	1950-51*	1955-56*	1960-61*	1965-66†
Rice	26	9	42	19
Jowar	489	454	733	667
Bajri	671	870	957	1,093
Maize	2	2	4	5
Wheat	59	95	130	167
Other cereals	2	1	1	1
Total cereals	*1,249*	*1,431*	*1,867*	*1,952*
Gram	12	46	6	4
Other pulses	95	56	46	41
Total pulses	107	102	52	45
Total food grains	*1,356*	*1,533*	*1,919*	*1,997*
Sugar-cane	11	17	49	71
Chillies	10	8	28	17
Groundnut	427	403	2,387	2,446
Sesamum	119	151	146	171
Castor	4	19	3	5
Rape and mustard	4	1	..	..
Other oil seeds	..	..	5	..
Total oil seeds	*554*	*574*	*2,541*	*2,623*
Cotton	68	60	85	104

Source :

**Statistics of Area, Production and Yield per Acre of Principal Crops in Gujarat State for the period, 1949-50 to 1963-64*, Directorate of Agriculture, Ahmedabad, (1965), pp. 26-162.

†Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

Out-turn of Crops

The out-turn of principal crops in the district during the period 1950-51 to 1965-66 is given in the following statement:—

STATEMENT IV.9

Out-turn of Principal Crops

(in '00 tonnes)

Crops	1950-51*	1955-56*	1960-61*	1965–66†
Rice	19	4	36	6
Jowar	44	39	163	142
Bajri	122	255	383	563
Maize	1	1	1	5
Wheat	58	83	127	310
Other cereals	1	1	1	1
Total cereals	*245*	*383*	*711*	*1,027*
Gram . .	4	19	2	1
Other pulses	13	11	10	6
Total pulses	*17*	*30*	*12*	*7*
Sugar-cane	61	81	187	408
Chillies	1	7	8	9
Potatoes	2	...	..	...
Groundnut	288	126	1,595	1,292
Sesamum	26	43	40	46
Castor	1	4	1	1
Rape and mustard	2	...	...	...
Cotton	43	25	61	72

Note : Production of cotton is in hundred bales of 178 kg., each. Production of sugar-cane is given in terms of *gur*.

Source :

* *Statistics of Area Production and Yield per Acre of Principal Crops in Gujarat State for the period, 1949-50 to 1963-64*, Directorate of Agriculture, Ahmedabad, (1965), pp 26-162

† Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

The principal crops in which there is a noteworthy increase during the last two decades are sugar-cane, wheat, *bajri*, groundnut, *jowar*, sesamum and cotton in order of increase. In the case of the remaining crops, there is no significant change.

Methods of Cultivation

Cereals

Bajri—*Bajri* (*Pennisetum typhoideum*) is the most important cereal crop in the district covering the largest area under food crops and thus occupying the position which was enjoyed by *jowar* a few decades ago. *Bajri* along with *jowar* forms the staple food of the masses. It is a kharif crop grown all over the district but more extensively in Rajula, Dhari and Kodinar which accounted for nearly half of the total area under this crop. Its cultivation has gradually increased in recent years from 157,067 *bighas* (37,390 hectares) in 1920-21 to 67,100 hectares in 1950-51 and 109,300 hectares in 1965-66, recording a three-fold increase during the last 45 years. In 1965-66, area under this crop formed 52 per cent of the area under total food crops and about 21 per cent of the total cultivated area in the district. Preparatory tillage of the field is done in May and sowing usually starts after the first good rainfall in June-July by a local *dantal* (seed-drill). *Bajri* is generally grown mixed with pulses such as *mag* or *math*. The local Babapuri variety is predominantly sown, however, with the introduction of hybrid *bajri* since 1966-67 the area under hybrid *bajri* is increasing. After sowing, the seeds are covered by rolling a plank over them. Most of the area is sown under dry condition. If necessary, the crop is irrigated wherever there is irrigation facility. Nitrogenous and phosphatic fertilizers are applied at the time of sowing and subsequently another dose of fertilizers is given one month after. Timely rainfall in August favours its growth and yields a good harvest. It generally ripens after 90 days mostly by October, when the whole crop is harvested close to the roots and tied into bundles 4 to 5 days later when dry. Ear-heads are then cut off with a sickle, and carted to the threshing floor where threshing is done by trampling the crop under the feet of bullocks. The yield per acre recorded in this district has always remained higher compared to the State average or the average in the country as a whole. The average yield per acre of *bajri* was 637 lbs. in Amreli as against 486 lbs. in the Gujarat State and 308 lbs. in India.[1] The total production of *bajri* was 56,289 tonnes in 1965-66.

Jowar—*Jowar* (*Andropogan Sorghum*) is another important cereal crop grown all over the district. In importance, it is next to *bajri* in respect of the area and the yield. It is mainly a kharif crop, though it is

1. *Gujarat State Agricultural Atlas*, published by Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad, (1968), p. 25.

also grown as rabi. Area and production of *jowar* have considerably increased during the last decade From 45,400 hectares in 1955-56 its area increased to 66,695 hectares in 1965-66. Its out-turn has similarly increased from 3,900 tonnes in 1955-56 to 11,200 tonnes in 1965-66. Babra, Amreli, Lathi and Kunkavav constituted the major *jowar* growing areas, which accounted for more than 50 per cent of the total area under this crop. The area under *jowar* formed nearly 32 per cent of the total area under food crops in 1965-66 The *jowar* grown in the past was named as *dholi* and *tunkadi* [1] At present, improved varieties have become popular, as they give a higher yield *Jowar* is sown in rotation with cotton on black soils and with *bajri* and cotton on soils of lighter descriptions. It is grown both for food grain and fodder It is recognised as the best fodder crop especially for farm stock and cultivators usually preserve it for use during the lean years. The timings and methods of various agricultural operations for kharif *jowar* are the same as those for *bajri* described above. The rabi *jowar* which is mostly confined to Amreli, Rajula, Jafrabad and Kodinar talukas gives a higher yield.

Wheat—*Wheat (Triticum sativum)* which occupies the third place among cereals is a rabi crop grown all over the district. Area under its cultivation has increased from 22,640 *bighas* (5,389 hectares) in 1920-21 to 13,000 hectares in 1960-61 and 16,700 hectares in 1965-66. Its out-turn was 31,000 tonnes in 1965-66. Sowing usually starts after the Dassera festival in October-November, and is done by seed-drill locally called *dantal*. The first watering is given 15 to 20 days after sowing, followed by regular waterings every 10-12 days depending on soil. The crop ripens in March, when it is harvested and threshed. The average yield is expected to be 20 times the quantity of seed sown or over 400 kg per acre which is higher than the average yield in the State It appears that with proper manuring and seed selection, the yield can be further increased. The local variety known as white *katha* grown both as dry and irrigated crop in medium black soils has been popular since long Recently an improved variety called N P 824 is also introduced by the Agriculture Department. This variety ripens in 125 days and gives additional production of 15 per cent over the local variety, and is resistant to rust. The Mexican varieties of wheat like Kalyan Sona and Sonalika have also been introduced.

Paddy—Rice or paddy (*Oriza sativa*) locally termed Kamod, ranks fourth in importance among cereals It is a kharif crop grown by drilling. It covered an area of 1,914 hectares in 1965-66 as against 3,538 *bighas* (842 hectares) in 1920-21 The main paddy growing areas in the district are Kodinar and Kunkavav. Improved varieties recommended by Agriculture Department are Sathi 34-36 and Sukhvel-20.

1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, Bombay (1923), p. 282.

The seed is sown with a drill, usually in late June or middle of July and harvested during October. Sathi 34-36, which generally gives an additional production of 15 per cent over local variety ripens in 100 days, while Sukhvel-20, which gives 8 per cent additional yield, matures in 110 days.

Pulses

The important pulse crops grown are black gram, *mag* and gram. They are generally not grown alone as a single crop, but are mixed with *jowar* or *bajri* and at times with sugar-cane and groundnut. In this district, the area under pulses has gradually declined from 10,700 hectares in 1950-51 to 5,200 hectares in 1960-61 and to 4,518 hectares in 1965-66, because they are being replaced by cash crops of groundnut and sugar-cane. Their out-turn has similarly declined from 1,700 tonnes in 1950-51 to 1,200 tonnes in 1960-61 and to 700 tonnes in 1965-66.

Adad—Black gram (*Phaseolus mungo*) is an important pulse crop occupying the largest area, *i. e.*, 2,740 hectares which was 61 per cent of the total area under pulses in 1965-66. Its out-turn during the year was 400 tonnes. Grown all over the district, its cultivation is extensive in Rajula and Kodinar which accounted for more than half the area under this crop.

Chana—Gram (*Cicer arietinum*) cultivation has gone down considerably over the last few years. It covered an area of 10,321 *bighas* (2,457 hectares) in 1920-21 which increased to 4,600 hectares in 1955-56 but decreased to 389 hectares in 1965-66. Its out-turn has similarly declined from 1,900 tonnes in 1955-56 to 100 tonnes in 1965-66. The decline may be attributed to the competing claims of cash crops as also to the decreasing rainfall over the last few years.

Kalthi—Horse gram (*Dolichos biflorus*) which covered 2,973 *bighas* (708 hectares) in 1920-21 accounted for only 555 hectares in 1965-66. Its cultivation does not require much water or manure and is used as a preparatory crop in virgin lands. Its out-turn was 100 tonnes in 1965-66.

Oil seeds

The important oil seeds grown in the district are groundnut and sesamum among edibles and castor among non-edibles. The total area under oil seeds in 1965-66 was 2,62,285 hectares of which 99.80 per cent were under edible and only 0·20 per cent under non-edible oil seeds. Of the edibles, groundnut, by far the most important crop in the district, claimed a major portion covering 244,637 hectares or 93·46 per cent and sesamum, 6·54 per cent. Castor among non-edibles was grown in 525 hectares only.

Area under oil seeds has gradually increased especially during the last two decades due to their greater demand and high prices In 1950-51, the area under oil seeds was about 55,400 hectares which rose to 262,300 hectares in 1965-66. Their production likewise increased from 31,700 tonnes to 133,900 tonnes during the same period.

Groundnut (Arachis hypogaea)—Groundnut is the most important cash crop in the district. It is extensively grown in Kunkavav, Amreli and Dhari talukas which accounted for more than half of the total area under this crop. Cultivation of groundnut has gradually increased from 42,700 hectares in 1950-51 to 244,600 hectares in 1965-66 by about 473 per cent. Its out-turn has similarly increased by 349 per cent from 28,800 tonnes in 1950-51 to 129,200 tonnes in 1965-66. Scheme for maximised production of groundnut has been introduced in this district since 1967. The scheme envisages increase in production by intensive cultivation methods such as use of improved seeds, more seed rate, seed treatment with fungicide, use of fertilizers, crop protection and irrigation wherever feasible. An area of nearly 65,000 hectares was covered under this scheme by 1968. The implementation of the scheme has resulted in the increase of groundnut production by 24 per cent.

Groundnut was not an important crop and was sparsely sown in Amreli during olden days. The *Baroda Gazetteer* stated : "Groundnut as an oilseed crop, requires but a passing notice. In spite of special efforts, it has not been able to establish itself amongst the common crops The high cost of the seed, the heavy harvesting charges and the damage done by jackals, pigs, crows and white ants, have proved too strong a combination for the farmer to combat".[1]

As kharif crop, it is sown in June-July and harvested in October. There are two types of groundnut, (1) spreading and (2) erect or bunch type. Spreading type is late by 30 days and as such it is generally suitable for sowing in black retentive soils. The improved varieties popularised are Punjab-1 as spreading type and Junagadh-11 as erect or bunch type.

Sesamum (Sesamum indicum)—It is grown as a principal crop in the district on medium black soils and is rotated with *bajri* or cotton. There are two varieties, late and early. The early variety is sown in June-July, while the late one is sown in August-September. It ripens in 4 months, when it is harvested and tied into bundles After a week or so when it is dry, it is threshed on the floor with hands. The crop is a precarious one. It is very susceptible to weather conditions and to the ravages of a kind

1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, Bombay, (1923), p. 290.

of pod-borer. When it thrives, it does so handsomely, and when it fails, it does so miserably. It is in this respect quite a contrast to castor which exhibits such a wide range of adaptability.

In 1920-21, it covered 56,873 *bighas* (13,539 hectares) and then declined to 11,900 hectares in 1950-51. Thereafter, it has shown a steady increase from 15,100 hectares in 1955-56 to 17,123 hectares in 1965-66. Its out-turn similarly increased from 2,600 tonnes in 1950-51 to 4,600 tonnes in 1965-66.

Castor (Ricinus communis)—The old Gazetteer reported castor as an important crop amongst the oil seed crops. Its cultivation, however, steadily declined from 3,552 *bighas* (846 hectares) in 1920-21 to 1,181 *bighas* (281 hectares) in 1945-46 and again increased to 500 hectares in 1965-66. Its out-turn was 100 tonnes in 1965-66.

Cotton (Gossypium herbaceum)—Cotton is the second most important cash crop of the district. In 1920-21, it covered 168,861 *bighas* (40,197 hectares). The area gradually declined to 6,800 hectares in 1950-51 and 6,000 hectares in 1955-56. During the Second Plan period, Government introduced new varieties of cotton which induced farmers to increase its cultivation. A Regional Cotton Breeding Station was also started at Amreli to improve the quality and yield of cotton. Cotton growing simultaneously became more remunerative as it fetched better prices than before. As a result, cultivation of cotton rapidly increased from 8,500 hectares in 1960-61 to 10,388 hectares in 1965-66.

In olden days, Amreli was growing largely *mathio* variety, which was of poor quality and yield. In these circumstances, the need for improving its quality and yield was keenly felt. The research was, therefore, undertaken and improved varieties were subsequently evolved. Of these, the varieties C. J. 73 and the Indo-American variety known as 170 Co_2 are being extensively grown. Out-turn of cotton has increased from 2,500 bales in 1955-56 to 7,200 bales in 1965-66.

Sugar-cane (Saccharum officinarum)—The cultivation of sugar-cane, an important cash crop, has gradually increased from 1,100 hectares in 1950-51 to 1,700 hectares in 1955-56, then to 4,900 hectares in 1960-61 and ultimately to 7,100 hectares in 1965-66. According to the old Gazetteer, sugar-cane cultivation was limited and scattered in the past and was confined mostly to Dhari, Damnagar and Kodinar talukas only. It covered 2,208 *bighas* (526 hectares) in 1920-21 and 6,391 *bighas* (1,521 hectares) in 1945-46. Its out-turn increased from 6,100 tonnes in 1950-51 to 18,700

tonnes in 1960-61 and to 40,800 tonnes in 1965-66 recording an overall increase of 569 per cent. The area under sugar-cane is increasing in Kodinar taluka due to the co-operative sugar factory known as Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandali Ltd. at Kodinar, the details about which are given in a separate Annexure I in Chapter V—Industries. The district will soon have another co-operative sugar factory, *viz.*, Amreli Sahakari Krishi Khand Udyog, near village Gavadka in Amreli taluka. The factory with crushing capacity of 1,250 tons of sugar-cane per day was expected to start functioning by November, 1971.

Fruits and Vegetables

The main fruits grown are mango, *papaya* and banana. Area under fruits is not extensive in this district and is confined to Dhari, Kodinar, Kunkavav and Rajula talukas. In 1965-66, the total area under all fruits was 552 hectares. Grape cultivation has recently been started on experimental basis. There are two Government Fruit Nurseries in this district at Dhari and Kodinar. Cultivators are supplied quality fruit plants and grapes at reasonable rates from these nurseries. During the year 1968-69, more than 11,000 plants and grapes were supplied to the cultivators by these nurseries.

Cultivation of brinjal, *bhinda* (lady's finger), onions and cabbage is done extensively all over the district. Vegetables are grown all over the district and covered an area of 788 hectares in 1965-66. Onions are grown in abundance, white variety being largely cultivated in Kodinar taluka. Carrots are cultivated everywhere, and in some parts, are sown largely for fodder.

Fodder—The cultivators generally grow *jowar* and maize for fodder and in addition utilize stocks of *bajri* and groundnut for fodder purposes. The lucern for fodder is grown all over the district to supply green fodder. In hilly and rocky areas grass is also grown as fodder.

Condiments and Spices—Amreli does not grow condiments and spices to any appreciable extent. In 1965-66, they occupied only 1,823 hectares of which 1,735 were under chillies.

Rotation of Crops

Groundnut, *bajri*, wheat and cotton are the important crops of this district. The rotations followed in these crops are as under :—

A. *Two years rotation*

(i) *Bajri* and groundnut (ii) *Bajri* and wheat (iii) *Bajri* and vegetables (iv) Cotton and groundnut.

B. *Three years rotation*

Cultivators in this district usually do not practice three years rotation.

KHARIF AND RABI CROPS

The crops, food and non-food, grown in the district can be grouped under two main heads, kharif and rabi. The kharif or the rain-fed crops are sown in June-July and harvested in October-November. The rabi or winter crops are sown in November and harvested in February-March. The most important kharif crops are groundnut, *bajri* and *jowar* which covered 81 per cent of the cultivated area in the district in 1965-66. The main rabi crops are wheat and lucern for fodder. The pluvial dependency of different crops is reflected in the fact that about 91 per cent of the area sown is under kharif and only 9 per cent under rabi crops.

CROP CALENDAR

The calendar of agricultural operations for important crops in the district is given in the statement below :—

Crops	Sowing months	Harvesting months
1	2	3
Rice	June-July	October-November
Wheat (Rabi)	November	February-March
Jowar (Kharif)	June-July	November
Jowar (Rabi)	October-November	February-March
Bajri	June-July	October-November
Gram	October	February-March
Groundnut	June-July	October-November
Castor	August	April
Sugar-cane	January-February	February-March-April
Cotton	June-July	November-December-January
Chillies	July-August	December-February-March

Source:

District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli, p. 22

The agricultural year commences in July and ends in June in the State.

CROP PROSPECTS

Amreli, which has 3·24 per cent of the State population, possesses nearly 6 per cent of its cultivated area and produces about 4 per cent of the total food grain production of the State. Its contribution to the State food production is thus not fairly proportionate to its share of the cultivated area. This may be attributed to three main factors, *viz.*, (1) low rainfall, (2) inadequate irrigation facilities and (3) preponderance of cash or non-food crops.

The agriculture of the district mainly depends on the south-west monsoon rains. The average annual rainfall varies from 500 to 600 millimetres. This region, therefore, experiences two to three lean years in every five-year period. This uncertainty has led the cultivators to depend more on irrigation facilities Every year more wells are newly constructed and more oil pumps installed. The number of newly constructed wells has gone up from 850 in 1961-62 to 4,588 in 1967-68. Similarly, the number of newly installed oil-engines has increased from 800 to 1,923 during the period. Inspite of this, not even 10 per cent of the cultivated area is brought under irrigation. The fate of cultivators is still largely determined by the vagaries of the monsoon. As there is no assured underground water supply except in the Kodinar taluka, considerable difficulty is experienced to get enough under-ground water. It is, therefore, felt that a soil survey of the area should be undertaken to ascertain the availability of the under-ground water.

The district grows non-food crops or cash crops, of which groundnut is the most important crop, in much larger proportion compared to the State. In 1965-66, Amreli had about 60 per cent of its cropped area under non-food crops, as against 53 per cent in the State.[1] Thus, there is cultivation of cash crops at the cost of food grains because the former fetch better prices to the cultivators

The yield per acre of some of the important crops like *bajri*, *jowar*, wheat and groundnut is much higher in Amreli than in the State as a whole. Though the district experienced scarcity or lean period between 1965-66 and 1968-69, agricultural production has increased. This may be attributed to the extensive use of fertilizers, improved seeds and the adoption of improved methods of cultivation by the cultivators due to good agricultural extension The use of fertilizers has increased at a very rapid rate as can be seen from the following figures.—

Year	Nitrogenous fertilizers used in tonnes	Phosphatic fertilizers used in tonnes	Per acre consumption of Nitrogenous and Phosphatic elements (in kg.)	
			Nitrogenous	Phosphatic
1961-62	5,958	4,742	0 98	0.63
1962-63	4,838	5,859	0 81	0.78
1963-64	5,678	7,794	0 95	0.98
1964-65	4,210	12,712	0.70	1.68
1965-66	4,379	15,000	0.73	2 00
1966-67	11,693	19,175	1.95	2 55
1967-68	13,535	22,963	2.24	3 05
1968-69	24,094	32,678	4.00	4.35

Source

District Agricultural Officer, Amreli.

1. *Amreli Jillo, Chothi Panch Varshiya Yojana*, (in Gujarati), Part I, Amreli, (1965), p. 143.

The above statistics show that the use of nitrogenous fertilizers has increased over four times, and that of phosphatic fertilizers over seven times. This remarkable progress has been made possible by the two pronged extension programme implemented by the district panchayat for small cultivators and large landholders.

(i) It was found that small farmers could not adequately take advantage of improved practices mainly because of their poverty. Most of the cultivators fall in this category. If the per acre production is to be increased, it is this class of small farmers who need to be motivated to adopt improved agricultural practices. In 1967-68, the District Panchayat decided to lay one acre demonstration plots of hybrid *bajri* and ten-*guntha* plots of irrigated wheat in their fields. Over 1,400 plots in 1967-68 and 1,800 plots in 1968-69 were thus laid out to demonstrate the effects of improved seeds.

(ii) The second phase of extension was to encourage progressive farmers to climb the agricultural ladder through seminars, demonstrations and educational tours.

(a) Every year two seminars of progressive farmers are held at Amreli—one in kharif and one in rabi—for imparting training in modern methods of cultivation. These seminars have motivated them to adopt improved agricultural tools and techniques.

(b) Demonstration plots are also laid out in the fields of progressive farmers, to show improved methods of cultivation.

The taluka and village panchayats have also contributed to the development of agriculture by earmarking 15 per cent of their budgeted expenditure for this purpose.

After the introduction of hybrid *bajri* on a large scale, the cultivators now feel that with the present prices of *bajri* the per acre cost return of *bajri* is equal to that of groundnut. Moreover, *bajri*, unlike groundnut, can give better per acre yield even in lean years. It is, therefore, likely that groundnut area will be partially replaced by hybrid *bajri* in the years to come. The new crops like hybrid castor and soyabean may also replace some of the groundnut areas.

Only about 20 per cent of the total geographical area of the district is recorded as " area not available for cultivation ", of which 12 per cent are under forests, pastures and grazing lands. There is little scope for extensive cultivation in the district. The only way to increase agricultural production, therefore, lies in intensive cultivation through improved methods of agriculture.

ACTIVITIES OF THE DEPARTMENT

In the nineteenth century, efforts were made to improve agriculture. But they were confined to the teaching of agriculture in special and ordinary schools. Small farms were attached to these schools but the students after training instead of taking to agriculture ran after Government service and as such, these schools failed because they were more academic than practical. In 1904, courses in agriculture were introduced in the Patel Boarding School at Amreli. They also failed to achieve the objective. Spasmodic attempts were made to introduce improved seeds and implements but they met with the same fate.

It was only in the beginning of this century, that systematic attempts were made to introduce improved methods of agriculture. Till 1908, the officer in charge of agriculture had several other departments to look after. He was at one time in charge of as many as seven departments and had to perform his duties under severe difficulties. Moreover, as the country was under British dominance, the prevailing idea of the time seemed to be in favour of the wholesale introduction of everything foreign without regard to local conditions and needs Agricultural implements were imported from abroad, and the cultivator was encouraged to adopt them and other methods of the West. To this end, trials were made with artificial manures on dry and irrigated crops. Attempts were made to introduce costly and heavy implements and machinery As all these measures were spasmodic and unplanned, they did not produce any tangible results. Before 1909, the Agriculture Department was considered a temporary section of the Revenue Department. In 1909, it was given the status of Department and a Director was appointed. In 1912, the Department of Agriculture was put directly under charge of the Dewan, and the foundations of a new and progressive agricultural policy were then laid. The State arranged cattle shows, organised agricultural exhibitions and conducted demonstration centres for the practical use of implements. These and other measures went a long way in bettering the agricultural methods.

PROGRESS OF SCIENTIFIC AGRICULTURE

After Independence, systematic attempts have been made for the improvement of agriculture. The District Agricultural Officer is placed in charge of the district He looks after the implementation of schemes relating to agriculture He works under the technical control of the Superintending Agricultural Officer of the region, who supervises the agricultural activities in the entire region under the guidance of the Director of Agriculture. Schemes for the development of agriculture in the district include agricultural extension, education, establishment of seed multiplication farms and agricultural research stations, organisation of crop protection service, crop cutting experiments, crop competitions, distribution of improved seeds and implements, preparation of town and

rural composts, supply of chemical fertilizers, etc. As a result, improved seeds and implements are used on a large scale. Consumption of nitrogenous fertilizers has greatly increased from 5,958 tonnes in 1961-62 to 24,094 tonnes in 1968-69 and that of phosphatic fertilizers from 4,742 tonnes to 32,678 tonnes during the period. The following sections indicate the progress in scientific agriculture achieved in the various spheres including improved implements, seed supply, chemical fertilizers and research.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS

In the past, agricultural implements used in this district were made of *babul* wood by the village carpenter and thus, they were cheap and easy to repair. They included wooden plough or *hal* for ploughing the land, harrow or *ramp* with a long horizontal blade used in preparatory tillage, *dantal* for stirring the soil after ploughing, seed-drill for sowing, hoe or *rampadi* for destroying the weeds, *samar* for levelling the soil after ploughing, etc. The smaller tools in use included sickle or *datardu* for harvesting and cutting grass, spade or *kodali* and shovel or *pavdo* for digging the soil and rake or *kharpi* for weeding.

Though most of these tools and implements are still in use in this district, increasing use is now being made of improved mechanised implements such as oil-engines, electric pumps, tractors, etc. Wooden ploughs are being gradually replaced by improved iron ploughs. There are three factories at Rajula, which manufacture iron ploughs to meet the increasing demand of cultivators. The following statement gives figures of agricultural equipments used in the district according to the Livestock Censuses of 1951, 1956, 1961 and 1966 :—

STATEMENT IV.10

Agricultural Implements in use during the Years 1951, 1956, 1961, 1966

	1951*	1956*	1961*	1966†
Ploughs	41,270	36,545	54,501	55,601
(i) Wooden	N.A.	32,897	41,377	39,782
(ii) Iron	N.A.	3,648	13,124	15,819
Carts	17,886	25,184	37,192	37,820
Sugar-cane crushers	382	488	440	366
(i) Power	55	158	134	202
(ii) Bullock	327	330	306	164
Oil-engines	500	659	2,706	8,293
Electric pumps	6	21	151	317
Tractors	11	20	122	274
Ghanis	241	392	182	140
Persian wheels or *Rahats*	N.A.	N.A.	1,998	413

N.A.—Not available

Source:

* *District Census Handbook*, 1961, Amreli, p. 184.

† *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. IX, No. 1, published by Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Gujarat, Ahmedabad, (1969), pp. 168-169.

It will appear from the statement that the use of improved implements like iron ploughs, oil-engines, electric pumps, tractors, etc., has increased tremendously under the impact of the Five Year Plans. The use of mechanical devices is becoming increasingly popular. This is evident from the increase of iron ploughs from 3,648 in 1956 to 15,819 in 1966. Still, the wooden plough holds the fort, as its use has also increased from 32,897 in 1956 to 39,782 in 1966. Thus, the iron plough has not been able to replace the wooden plough because of its cheapness and manoeuvrability.

Despite the use of motor trucks and other mechanised vehicles, the use of bullock carts has more than doubled during the period from 1951 to 1966. The number of sugar-cane crushers has remained static but the power-driven crushers are gradually replacing the bullock-driven crushers.

The outstanding fact about the oil-engine is that its use has increased sixteen times during the period from 1951 to 1966[1]. Similarly, the electric pumps have increased 51 times from 6 to 317 during that period. The same is the case with tractors which have increased from 11 to 274, *i. e.*, 25 times during the period.

The number of *ghanis* have registered a steady fall from 392 in 1956 to 140 in 1966, because of the increase in the number of oil mills. Since irrigation in the district is primarily by wells, one may except increasing use of Persian wheels; but this has not happened, because of the tremendous increase in the use of electric pumps.

SEED SUPPLY

Most of the cultivators usually keep a reserve stock of their farm produce and use it as seed for sowing in the next season. Others obtain them from co-operative societies which supply improved varieties of seeds recommended by the Department of Agriculture. A few others obtain their requirements from the well-to-do cultivators or from local merchants. Before 1958, there were no regular Governmental agencies to evolve and supply improved seeds to cultivators. In 1958, the first seed multiplication farm was started in Dhari and subsequently, three more farms were started one each at Lathi, Vadia and Babra. It was found that those cultivators who had used improved seeds were able to get greater outturn on the same soil. This motivated others to use improved seeds for sowing. At present, there are eight seed multiplication farms, one in each major taluka of the district. They supply the seed requirements to the selected cultivators in the taluka. During the Third Plan period, Government supplied over two lakh kilograms of improved seeds of various

1. By 1970, the number of oil-engines was reported to have increased to about 20.000.

crops to the cultivators in this district. The following statement gives details :—

Improved seeds 1	Distribution (in kg.) 2	Area covered (in hectares) 3
1. *Bajri*	17,582	2,371
2. Wheat	·41,934	566
3. *Jowar*	17,458	883
4. Groundnut	126,792	1,283
5. Cotton	9,142	617

Source:
Pragati-ne-Panthe, *Amreli Jillo*, (1967), p. 11.

Groundnut and wheat claimed a larger portion of improved seed-supply. The Government runs fruit nurseries at Dhari and Kodinar. They supply fruit grafts to cultivators at reasonable rates. Seeds of vegetables are also evolved and supplied to cultivators.

Manures and Fertilizers

Supply of suitable manures and fertilizers is one of the principal schemes for increasing production by scientific methods. As a whole, the soil is deficient in nitrogen content. The deficiency is made good by supply of plant nutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorus and potash in balanced proportions.

The old Gazetteer gives interesting details about the various methods adopted in the past.

"Manure is prepared in one of the six different ways. It is made of cattle-dung mixed with urine, and stored in a pit called *ukarda* during the year. A month before the beginning of the rainy season, the manure is taken out and spread in small heaps over the fields where it remains for a few days to be thoroughly mixed with the soil below after the monsoon has set in. The field is then ploughed. The second manure of importance is that of sheep and goats ....The third manure is composed of ashes. The fourth is provided by decayed leaves gathered from under hedges and trees. They are mixed with moist black earth, and the whole is then spread over the fields. The fifth is of mud secured from the beds of tanks and rivers. The sixth is of castor cake, which is most commonly used in sandy land. Two important kinds of manures, bones and night soil, are allowed to be entirely wasted, owing to the religious scruples of the cultivator."[1]

Though the methods stated above are still being followed, cultivators have started making increasing use of manure mixtures

1. Desai G. H. and Clarke, A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, Bombay, (1923), pp. 264-265.

and fertilizers and also prepare organic manures like compost, farm-yard manure, etc. The municipalities and bigger panchayats have started supplying town compost and rural compost. About 14,000 tonnes of rural compost and 6,300 tonnes of town compost were thus made available to cultivators in 1968-69. The importance of chemical fertilizers has been realised by the cultivators because of the relatively higher yield accruing from their use Under a scheme introduced during the Third Five Year Plan, chemical fertilizers were distributed free of cost to cultivators for demonstration. The use of super-phosphate has greatly increased during recent years as this fertilizer has proved very beneficial to the growth of groundnut, which is the most important cash crop in this district.

AGRICULTURAL PESTS AND DISEASES

The good effects of favourable crop production are many a time neutralised by various factors which include (a) natural calamities like floods, storms and draughts, (b) inroads by birds and animals, (c) pests and (d) diseases. While crop damages caused by natural calamities are occasional those by birds and animals can be prevented by putting up scare-crows and fencing. But pests and diseases which are endemic cause large scale destruction of agricultural produce.

A serious pest prevalent foi the last few years is aphids on groundnut crop. Numerous small insects appear suddenly when the crop is about two months old and suck the sap from the plant and give great set-back to the crop reducing the yield to the extent of 30 to 40 per cent. The pest occurs regularly and continues for about 3 weeks. Use of insecticides like Demecron 100, Rogor, Metasystox and Ekatin has proved effective against this pest and the cultivators have taken to these insecticides to save their crops from aphids.

As regards diseases the rust on wheat crop was widely prevalent only a few years back. But the evolution of new resistent varieties of wheat like N. P. 824, N. P. 718, N. P. 710 and latest Mexican varieties has proved helpful. By growing the rust resistant varieties the rust does not damage the crop. No other crop pest or disease is now found on large scale in this district.

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

For the improvement of agriculture a number of research schemes have been introduced by the Government in this district. They are as follows.

(1) *The Regional Cotton Breeding Station, Amreli*

Under a scheme jointly sponsored by the former Baroda State and the Indian Central Cotton Committee, the botanical improvement of *Deshi*

Mathio cotton was taken up at Amreli in the year 1937. The object of the scheme was to improve the *Mathio* variety of cotton as far as possible under the local conditions. The normal annual rainfall of this region is 700 mm. but in recent years it has been much below the normal and is more often uncertain. Hence the need of raising an early maturing type of cotton like *Mathio* which can mature in five months' time with a minimum water supply was felt. As a result of the research work done at this centre till 1947, an improved variety of cotton named Pratap (Selection S-31) was evolved at the centre and was released for common cultivation. In 1948, after extensive trials another improved variety called Sanjay (C.J.73) was evolved. It gives a larger yield per acre compared to Pratap and being better in quality also fetches higher prices. Sanjay on an average gives the cultivator an extra income of Rs. 50 per acre as compared to the local varieties. From 1962, this centre started functioning as a Regional Research Station for cotton research wholly financed by the State Government. The Station is now under the administrative control of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Rajkot Division, Rajkot.

(2) *The Regional Research Station for Groundnut, Amreli*

The former Baroda State had started an agricultural research station at Amreli in 1930. As a result of experiments carried out at this station during the early forties, high-yielding varieties of groundnut were evolved. As a result, the area under groundnut cultivation increased considerably and reached an acreage of 244,637 hectares in 1965-66 as against 42,700 hectares in 1950-51. An important variety of groundnut known as A. H. 32 was found to be better suited to this region.

In general, the bunch-type erect variety of groundnut has been found more suitable for cultivation in this district, as it requires less rainfall compared to the spreading type. For this reason, research work on bunch-type groundnut was intensified at this centre. Till 1962, improved varieties evolved at the main station at Junagadh were tried at this station. From 1962 onwards, work at Amreli has been intensified making the centre a regional station for conducting experiments in bunch-type groundnut. An important bunch-type variety named as Junagadh-11 was found to be superior to A.H. 32 and was released for common cultivation from 1965-66. This variety is extensively grown in Amreli district. The research station also conducts experiments to study various agronomic aspects of the groundnut crop. The station works under the administrative control of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Rajkot and the technical control of the Oilseeds Specialist, Gujarat State, stationed at Junagadh.

(3) *The Grass Land Research Station, Dhari*

The Grass Land Research Station was started in the year 1962, for evolving better quality grass. It conducts experiments on chief varieties of grass

to study their nutritive value and the effects of manuring, weeding, interculturing, etc. Different types of grass and legumes collected from within and outside the State are studied in this centre. It maintains a two-acre irrigated nursery and a one-acre dry nursery, where about a hundred varieties of grass and legumes are sown and studied. The various experiments carried out here have shown that the treatment of weeding as and when required with two interculturings as also the application of nitrogenous fertilizer gives higher yields of hay and seeds.

(4) *The Regional Sugar-cane Research Sub-Station, Kodinar*

The Regional Sugar-cane Research Sub-Station was started in the year 1958. It selects early and late maturing varieties of sugar-cane to find out ideal methods of manuring, irrigation, etc., to evolve better varieties. The station has found suitable two improved varieties, namely, C. O. 791 and C O. 955. The improved variety grown at present is C. O. 419. The centre is under the administrative control of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Rajkot Division, Rajkot, and under the technical control of Sugar-cane Specialist, Gujarat State, Junagadh.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Cattle wealth is of great importance to the economy of the district especially in agriculture Every farmer usually has at least a cow or a buffalo and a pair of bullocks which perform a variety of functions, chief among them being ploughing, drawing water-lifts (*kos*), carrying bullock-carts, agricultural implements, etc. Agriculture is not mechanised to an appreciable extent. Bullocks, therefore, provide the principal draught power needed for agriculture.

Livestock raising is an economic activity pursued by certain sections of the community, who have made grazing and breeding of livestock their traditional occupation. Livestock has proved to be a very valuable asset also to the farmer. It provides him with the draught power required for cultivation, and an additional means of supplementing his income. The first comprehensive livestock census in Amreli was undertaken by the Baroda State as far back as 1920. The number of cattle recorded in the Census was 174,442 of which 25,684 were cows, 32,251 bullocks, 15,513 she-buffaloes, 40,204 goats and 21,866 sheep. Horses and mares numbered 2,840, donkeys numbered 2,260, while camels only 55.

The following statement gives details recorded in the Census :—

Livestock Population in 1920

Category	Number
Total Livestock	174,442
Cows	25,684
Bulls	4,710
Bullocks	32,251
Calves	17,980
She-buffaloes	15,513
He-buffaloes	769
Young buffaloes	9,612
Goats	40,204
Sheep	21,866
Horses	1,411
Mares	1,729
Young horses and mares	515
Donkeys	2,260
Camels	55
Others	183

Source:

DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, Bombay, (1923). p. 266.

Among the cattle, Amreli district has the finest breed of buffaloes known as the Jafrabad breed. "Its home, like those of the Gir, is the Gir forest in India. The horns are heavy and grow downwards before curving upwards. They are heavy milkers, the average being 1,814 kg. per lactation; they are also late maturing with long-calving intervals".[1]

1. RANDHAWA M. S., *Farmers of India*, Vol. IV, published by Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi, p. 198.

The following statement gives population of livestock in Amreli district according to the last four censuses :—

STATEMENT IV.11

Livestock Population from 1951 to 1966 in Amreli District

Categories of livestock	1951*	1956*	1961*	1966†
1	2	3	4	5
Total Livestock	**536,125**	**470,358**	**536,962**	**565,280**
(A) Bullocks and Cows ...	239,245	232,205	279,412	282,733
1. Males over 3 years ..	101,420	96,413	122,437	121,496
2. Females over 3 years ..	70,166	60,258	74,668	77,386
3. Young stock	67,659	75,534	82,307	83,851
(B) Buffaloes	76,831	59,154	78,854	85,140
1. Males over 3 years ...	395	453	657	396
2. Females over 3 years ...	48,189	33,277	46,134	48,963
3. Young stock	28,247	25,424	32,063	35,781
(C) Sheep	113,562	86,434	94,141	102,725
(D) Goats	95,585	81,233	71,723	85,597
(E) Horses and Ponies	8,116	7,496	9,076	5,657
(F) Mules	2	1	42	6
(G) Donkeys	2,584	3,737	3,549	3,338
(H) Camels	200	96	165	84
(I) Pigs	.	2	...	...
Total Poultry	*6,449*	*16,259*	*20,575*	*18,922*

Source :

* *District Census Handbook*, 1961, Amreli, p. 22 and p. 184.

† *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. IX, No. 1, published by Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Government of Gujarat, Ahmedabad, (1969), pp. 98-101.

As the table indicates the total livestock population has increased from 536,125 in 1951 to 565,280 in 1966 registering an overall increase of 5·44 per cent in 15 years. This increase is noticed in most of the categories of livestock. Cows have increased by 10·29 per cent, bullocks by 19·79 per cent and donkeys by 29·18 per cent. Horses and ponies have gone down from 8,116 in 1951 to 5,657 in 1966 and camels from 200 to 84 during the same period as their use has proved less economical with the passage of time. The number of donkeys, however, increased from 2,584 to 3,338 as their demand has increased considerably in moving earth, bricks, etc., in construction work.

As livestock plays a vital part in the agricultural economy, improvement in the quality of their breed is a matter of great importance. For this purpose, the Government runs one artificial insemination centre at Amreli with six sub-centres in other parts of the district.

The district has 11 Taluka Veterinary Dispensaries, two at Amreli and one each at Khambha, Dhari, Kodinar, Damnagar, Lathi, Kunkavav, Rajula and Jafrabad. In addition, there are 10 Vaterinary Aid-centres one each at Jaliya, Mota-Gokharvala, Panchtalavada, Ansodar, Ghantwad, Mota-Samadhiyala, Chalala, Jira, Vadia and Bagasara.

POULTRY

According to the Livestock Census of 1966, the total poultry population in the district was 18,922. Poultry keeping as a profession was unknown in the past. The people of the district have now begun to appreciate the value of poultry as a source of subsidiary income and food production. There has been a substantial increase in the number of poultry and poultry keepers in the district, as evidenced by the figures of the Livestock Census given earlier. Loans varying from Rs. 500 to Rs. 20,000 are given to the deserving poultry keepers to encourage improved poultry keeping. Organisation of poultry shows, supply of white leghorn cocks at concessional rates and technical advice in poultry management are given by the District Animal Husbandry Officer. In 1968, there were five poultry farms in the district.

ANIMAL DISEASES

The prevalence of cattle disease is one of the most serious obstacles to the improvement of cattle. According to the *Baroda Gazetteer*[1] "the chief diseases prevalent in the district were rinder-pest, anthrax, foot and mouth diseases, and pluro-pnemonia Of them rinder-pest was considered the most fatal. The percentage of deaths was 50 to 90. Anthrax, otherwise

1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, Bombay, (1923), p. 268.

known as black quarter, was considered the most fatal form of fever. Both rinder-pest and anthrax were very contagious and the animal afflicted with these diseases seldom survived. The pluro-pneumonia was also considered dangerous as 60 to 80 per cent of the infected cattle usually died." The district had one veterinary dispensary at that time.

Of these diseases, anthrax and pluro-pneumonia have been mostly brought under control. But diseases of enterotoxaemia and sheep-pox have been recently detected. As the prophylactic remedies have been found these diseases have become less fatal. Preventive vaccination has been discovered in order to control the diseases. The number of veterinary dispensaries has increased from 1 in 1923 to 11 in 1965-66. In addition, there are 10 veterinary aid-centres located in different areas of the district which work for the protection of animals against contagious diseases by using prophylactic vaccination. In 1967-68 a total number of 60,154 cattle were vaccinated in the district. In spite of these, 1,346 animals were affected by various diseases, which claimed a toll of 64 lives. The following statement shows that while foot and mouth diseases are the most widespread among all diseases, the enterotoxaemia has proved to be the most fatal :—

STATEMENT IV.12

Animal Diseases Recorded, 1967-68

Name of the disease	Cattle		Buffaloes		Sheep		Total	
	Attacks	Deaths	Attacks	Deaths	Attacks	Deaths	Attacks	Deaths
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Enterotoxaemia	...	...	...	...	50	50	50	50
2. Foot and mouth diseases	999	...	267	...	14	...	1,280	...
3. Rinder-pest	...	...	8	7	...	...	8	7
4. Sheep-pox	...	...	...	...	8	7	8	7
Total ...	999	...	275	7	72	57	1,346	64

Source:

District Animal Husbandry Officer, Amreli.

FISHERIES

The fisheries of the district are located on the Dry Fish Zone from Madhwad to Jafrabad. The district has a coast-line of about 48 kms., along which the principal fishing ports of Jafrabad, Shiyalbet, Bherai, Chanch Kotada, Madhwad, Velan, Muldwarka and Victor are situated. It is called the Dry Fish Zone because the Bombay Duck is dried and sold here. The main fishing industry is concentrated at the port of Jafrabad which is one of the most important fishing ports of the Gujarat State and one of the most important landing centres in India. This port, with a well-sheltered creek, capable of accommodating more than 200 large fishing boats, and with potential fishing grounds nearby, attracts a large fleet of boats from the south Gujarat coast every year. The working population of fishermen in Amreli district was 1,381 in 1961, of whom 1,242 were males and 139 females. In Jafrabad alone there are about 400 active fishermen belonging to Kharva Koli community. In addition to local fishermen, about 2,000 fishermen from south Gujarat camp at Jafrabad during peak fishing season which usually coincides with the last four months of the year, *i. e.*, October to January.

Important varieties of fish in the district are Bombav Duck, pomfrets *hilsa*, prawns, sharks, coilia, etc.

For several decades, the fishermen from south Gujarat are attracted to Jafrabad for fishing, because of the availability of better place, better space and facilities and less intensity of current in comparison to those near the Gujarat coast. Further, the local fishermen (Kharvas) own boats and nets, but the south Gujarat Kharvas have no boats of their own and they get them on hire. The Kharva's vessel is bigger and has more fishing power and nets. The Kharva Kolis of Jafrabad, who were originally labourers (Khapanias), have less fishing acumen. The south Gujarat fishermen are all educated and maintain correct and complete accounts. The Kharvas of Jafrabad are, however, illiterate and are not able to keep accounts. In Jafrabad, 200 boats (वहाण) are employed in the fishing season from October to January. The fishing method is peculiar. Nine persons remain on the boat for fishing and 5 to 10 persons remain on the shore for cleaning and putting fish for drying on the rope. The captain of the boat (Tandel) remains mostly on the shore for directing the fishing operations. After the fish is landed, it is required to be washed properly and hanged on the ropes for drying. The drying may take 3 to 4 days. Fish is dried up because Bombay Duck is relished in dried form; only Parsis like it in a fresh form. Most of the fish is dried because it is difficult to preserve it in a fresh form. This is because the Bombay Duck has more percentage of water and less of fat.

Marketing—The *modus operandi* of the marketing of fish is very peculiar. The fish merchants and different co-operative societies bind the

fishermen by advance loans before the season starts. They advance amounts varying from Rs. 5,000 to 8,000, having regard to the capacity of different fisherman to catch the fish and their local reputation. Different fish merchants from outside visit the Jafrabad port and fishing villages during the off season (in the months of June and July) and advance various loans to bind the fishermen. Being bound down by the merchants, the fishermen are obliged to deliver all their catches collected during the season to the fish merchants concerned. It may be noted that the purchase rates are not fixed at the time of advancing loans. But after carrying out fishing during the season, a tripartite meeting of groups of fishermen, merchants and the Fishery Officer is held to fix the prices. This price fixation meeting is called *Mandli* or *Mandlo* and *Mandla*. Such meetings (मसवीरेा) are held once in a fortnight or a month. It varies with the different groups such as Damaniya, Nariya and Dipalia groups. *Mandli* system of price fixation is very interesting. The fishermen write down the rates on a slip of paper and hand it over to the Fishery Officer who passes it on to the merchants. The merchants then hold consultations among themselves and start haggling. They quote lower prices and write on the slip and return it to the Fishery Officer. During haggling, when the merchants quote prices roundabout those suggested by fishermen, the latter (fishermen) will tell the Fishery Officer that they would agree to the rates suggested by the officer and then they give Tali (ताली) to the merchants and thus concludes the price fixation process.

The rates are fixed either on the basis of bundles or weight. Weight basis is on a unit of 20 kg. of fish. The Bombay Duck is generally packed in the following sizes —

(1) Doti—200 numbers of bags in small weight or about 1 to 2 kg.
(2) Padika—10 Dotis, 2,000 numbers of bags in small bundles weighing about 15 to 20 kg.
(3) Bhara—Two Padikas.
(4) Hajari—Bundle of 1,000 Bombay Ducks of bigger size.

Officials of the Fishery Department at Jafrabad keep close watch over the fishing operations.

The fishery camp at Jafrabad port supports the economy of Jafrabad and the surrounding villages which supply labourers. Its annual fish production comes to nearly 15 per cent of the State's fish production. The total landings of fish at Jafrabad for the last five years are as follows:—

Year	Production in tonnes	Value in lakhs of Rs.
1964-65	2,521	33.06
1965-66	2,273	37 76
1966-67	1,812	37.59
1967-68	2,859	51.64
1968-69	2.294	40.75

The average fish trade of Jafrabad thus comes to about Rs. 40 lakhs every year.

Fishing is done with a bag shaped net (locally called *dol*) in case of Bombay Ducks, Mandli Hilsa and *Patta-patti* and with gill nets in case of *Palla-Palli*. The boats employed are known as *hodas* costing about Rs. 20,000 each or *machhwas* costing Rs. 10,000 each. The processing methods adopted by the fishermen are age old. The curing of Bombay Ducks is still done by sun drying. The baskets full of fish are dipped in sea-water for a wash and then taken to scaffoldings created for the purpose. They are hung on thick ropes in pairs for drying for about 72 hours.

The Government has established during the Third Plan period a research centre at Jafrabad which has standardised the process of lamination of Bombay Ducks. The Government has also constructed a jetty at a cost of Rs. 4.41 lakhs to minimise the navigational hazards in the process of fish catching. Another jetty costing about Rs. 8 lakhs will soon be constructed.

There is one co-operative society at Jafrabad known as the Jafrabad Fishermen Co-operative Society Ltd., which advances loans to fishermen for procurement of fishery requisites and runs a fair price shop also. It has undertaken modern processing methods by starting a lamination centre at Jafrabad. The society which originally started in 1953 with only 9 members and with a share capital of Rs. 110 had in 1969 as many as 590 members with a share capital of about Rs. 18,000.

It is remarkable that about 100 fishermen of Gujarat have also become members of the society. The society has tried to cater to practically all needs of fishermen under the competent management of Shri Chhotubhai Mehta, Chairman of the society. With Government loans, boats and nets have been purchased. Lease-licence has been obtained for quarries to provide anchor-stones. Fishery requisites or gears such as bitumen, bark, coir, cotton-yarn, etc., have been purchased by the society for fishermen-members. Further, the society runs a fair price shop and sells fish manure.

In addition, three more co-operative societies are working at Madhwad, Muldwarka and Kotda. These societies have taken up the processing of Bombay Ducks by modern methods and are manufacturing laminated Bombay Ducks.

Forests

In our economy predominated by agriculture the forests play a very useful role. Besides providing grass, timber and other products they protect the soil from erosion by water and influence the climate. The

Amreli district has a total area of 250 sq. kms., under forests. This works out to 3·73 per cent of the total area of the district as against 9·30 per cent in the State. The forests are mainly located in the talukas of Dhari and Khambha which occupy three-fourths of the total forest area of the district. The forest area situated in Dhari taluka is known as *sakhnel* and is spread over 116 sq. kms., while the one in Khambha taluka is known as *bhania* forest occupying 72 sq. kms. These areas have quite a good tree-growth. In other areas, which are easily accessible, the tree-growth is scattered, stunted and mal-formed.

For the development of forest areas, an amount of about Rs. 3.50 lakhs was spent by the Government during the Third Five Year Plan. The following schemes of forest development were initiated in the Third Plan and are in operation in the district at present.

(1) *Scheme for soil and moisture conservation and afforestation in denuded areas*

This scheme, as its name suggests, envisages conservation of soil and moisture in the dry and barren areas of the district. Large tracks of such areas are found in Lathi, Lilia, Amreli, Khambha, Jafrabad and Rajula where the rainfall is scanty and unevenly distributed resulting in a large run-off of soil and water. Systematic remedial measures to conserve both soil and water from being drained away into the sea are absolutely necessary to prevent further degradation of these areas. For this purpose, steps like contour trenching, construction of small sized check-dams and afforestation are taken in the suitable areas. In the year 1967-68, a total area of 243 hectares was covered under this scheme at a total cost of Rs. 40,000.

(2) *Scheme for plantations on the coastal border*

The scheme aims to cover coastal areas and to afforest them with some suitable tree plantations so as to create effective wind breaks for the protection of the fields situated in the coastal areas. The strong sea winds blow off the sand on the coastal areas which gets deposited in the fields situated nearby thus rendering them useless for further cultivation. Sometimes, the salt particles also get deposited over the crops and dry them off. This scheme was, therefore, started in 1966 to create an effective wind break and to stabilise the coastal sand by planting suitable species of trees on the coastal areas. Till 1968-69, an area of 182 hectares was covered under this scheme, involving a total cost of about Rs. 87,000.

(3) *Scheme for survey and demarcation of forest areas*

The scheme introduced in this district in 1966 aims at surveying and demarcating forest areas in order to assess correctly the available land

resources. The work was completed in the year 1968-69 when 314 kms., of land was surveyed under this scheme at a total cost of Rs. 19,000.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE

During the time when Amreli was under the former Baroda State, *tagavi* loans of three types were given by the State for financing agriculture : (i) fixed, (ii) famine and (iii) special. The fixed *tagavi* also known as Jathu *tagavi*, was granted for construction of wells, improvements in agriculture as also to maintain family of the agriculturists. An interest of 5 per cent was charged on these loans. The famine *tagavi* was granted, as its name indicates, during famine or scarcity periods for the purpose of purchase of seeds, fodder, water-lifts, etc., and also for digging of wells. These loans were, however, granted without any interest. The special *tagavi* was granted when some special improvements were to be effected such as digging of wells, installation of engines, pumps, tractors, etc. Such loans were granted during special circumstances. For instance, soon after the great famine of 1899 large sums were sanctioned without interest as *tagavi* for the construction of wells in the State.

The Baroda State had also started an Agricultural Bank in Amreli in 1909 with a working capital of Rs. 50,000. In 1905 the State had passed the Co-operative Credit Society Act for the organisation of Credit Societies for financing agriculture. It was, however, found that inspite of these facilities, the cultivators preferred to have their dealings with private money-lenders and applied for Government loans only when they could not obtain such loans from the local money-lenders. This was because of the fact that the private money-lenders were easily accessible and were ready to provide loan at any unearthly hour without execution of any document. These loans went to meet the requirements of an individual farmer in a very easy way. However, he charged exhorbitant rates of interest ranging sometimes, from 9 per cent to 25 per cent.

With the advent of Independence and the merger of the State in the Indian Union, the Government decided to establish a permanent agency to finance agriculture. For this purpose, the Bombay State Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank established in 1958 its brances in Amreli, Dhari and Kodinar as these areas of the district were under the jurisdiction of the Bombay State. Similarly, the Saurashtra State Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank opened its branches in Babra, Lathi and Rajula in 1955 and in Liliya and Vadia in 1956. After the formation of the Gujarat State, branches were opened in the remaining two talukas Khambha and Jafrabad by the Gujarat State Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank. The Bank is now redesignated as the Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank and has 10 branches in the district, one in each taluka headquarters.

The following statement gives details of the finance made available for various purposes to the agriculturists. The statement brings into relief the fact that a great portion of the advances given by the Bank is utilised for increasing irrigational facilities, purchase of oil-engines and construction or repairs of wells:—

Agricultural Finance Advanced to Cultivators since beginning (upto June, 1968)

Purpose	Amount in Rs.	Percentage
Sinking of new wells and repairs to old wells .	12,308,766	26.7
Oil-engines, electric motors, pumping sets, etc. ...	21,791,514	47.3
Purchase of tractors	3,506,892	7.6
Contour bunding	784,788	1.7
Farm houses, repairs and machine rooms	3,672,941	8.0
Redemption of old debt and other unclassified purposes	4,027,379	8.7
Total	46,092,280	100.00

Source:

Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank Ltd., Ahmedabad, *Annual Report*, (1967-68), pp. XXIV-XXV

The statement given above shows that 74 per cent of the advances given by the Bank were utilised for increasing irrigational facilities, *i. e.*, purchase of oil-engines, electric motors, pumping sets, etc., and construction of new wells or repairs of old ones. This shows that the Bank has supplied finance for their felt need of irrigation.

The branchwise advances given by the Bank since beginning upto June, 1968 are given in the following statement —

Branchwise Advances since beginning, (upto June, 1968)

Branch	Advances in Rs.
Amreli	5,758,933
Dhari	4,658,700
Kodinar	8,852,342
Vadia	6,289,990
Babra	4,616,184
Lilia	3,026,864
Lathi	5,536,630
Rajula	4,196,650
Khambha	1,883,637
Jafrabad	1,272,350
Amreli district	46,092,280

Source.

Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank Ltd., Ahmedabad, *Annual Report*, (1967-68), p. XXXV

FAMINES

Vagaries of monsoon in Saurashtra areas have been frequently felt. However, no authentic records of famines which must have necessarily occurred in Amreli district in the early past are available. There are records of the two great famines that visited the entire country in 1791 and 1812 but the details given indicate only that "there were severe famines in those years during which money was freely distributed from the State treasury. Labour on public works was greatly provided for the distressed." Facts recorded at different places indicate that climatic disasters of some kind or the other have almost regularly visited the peninsular Gujarat in which the district is situated. Floods were few but famines were many. These include the famine of 1718-19 known as *panchotara* (famine of the Samvat Year 1775). The famine was reported to be so severe that parents were forced to sell their children for a rupee or two per head and many were forced to eat leaves and roots to support life. In 1731-32, there were excessive rains which caused wet famine. This famine was also known as *lilo kal* or *Satyasio* as it occurred in the Samvat Year 1787. There was almost a continuous downpour for 14 days resulting in a very heavy loss of crops and food grains. In 1747, the rains failed and caused famine which was known as *tilotara*, as it happened in Samvat Year 1803. The year 1764, 1774, 1780 and 1785 also had poor monsoon resulting in the scarcity of food grains and high prices of foodstuffs.

A great famine occurred in 1790-91. It is known as *Sudtala* as the famine occurred in Samvat Year 1847. The old Gazetteer throws lucid light on the miseries inflicted by this devastating famine. "It devastated the whole of Kathiawar and Gujarat. Thousands of people died for want of food, and cattle perished wholesale in several places for want of fodder. Children were sold or deserted to die uncared for, and dead cattle and sheep were devoured. Many villages fell waste and it is said that many of them were never repopulated."[1] The rainfall was uneven in the years 1803-04 and 1811-12, however, the year 1812-13 proved terrible. This famine is known as *agnotara* having occurred in Samvat Year 1869.[2] This year of drought was followed by a year of excessive rain and flood. Many died of starvation

1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, Bombay (1923), pp. 307-308.

2. The recurrence of famine and scarcity in different parts of the district had weakened the economic condition of many small estate holders. They were, therefore, forced to alienate parts of their territories to the adjoining states for redemption of debts. It is recorded† that during the *agnotara* famine of 1813 Gaekwad's Diwan Vithalrao in Amreli took advantage of the sad plight of Kathis and acquired the territories comprising Chanchai, Kantala and Khadaghat which later constituted Amreli, Dhari and Khambha mahals. Thus, political capital was made out of people's miseries.

† DESAI G. H., *Amreli Prant-Sangrah*, Baroda, (1919-20), p. 44.

and of the survivors many were swept away by the plague which visited many parts of Gujarat in 1813-14. As the old Gazetteer records; "During these two years, the miseries to which the people were reduced were indescribable. Crops remained exposed in the market places. Children were not only sold and deserted but were in some cases eaten." The actual damage in this part of Gujarat is, however, not known. The year 1825-26 was a famine year. Locusts visited many parts of Saurashtra and caused considerable damage. Many cattle and human beings are said to have died during the famine In 1834-35 and 1838-39 again, there was little or no rain in this district and many other parts of Kathiawar resulting in considerable distress to the people.

The year 1877-78 was again a year of severe famine. The sufferings in Kodinar taluka and other surrounding areas were great. There was no rain till the beginning of September. Little rain which subsequently fell proved of no help. In 1878, the rainfall was excessive causing great injury to all crops, but more particularly to *bajri* and cotton. To add to the troubles, locusts poured in innumerable flights and devastated the kharif crops. The distress was the greatest in Amreli taluka and the nearby areas.

A very severe famine was again recorded in the year 1899-1900. This famine is still remembered as *Chhapanio* famine as it had occurred in the Samvat Year 1956 The rainfall had completely failed during the monsoon, resulting in almost cent per cent rise in the prices of *bajri* and *jowar*. The years between 1904 and 1908 were scarcity years. In 1905, there was over 50 per cent deficiency in the rainfall in a major part of this district. Referring to the scarcity of 1904-05 the Baroda Administration Report (1904-05) reported as under : "The rainfall, though better than in 1899-1900 was short of the decennial average preceding that year. The Amreli District was worst. The talukas of Amreli, Dhari and Damnagar had only about 5 inches of rainfall against an average of 21,. ... .The deficiency in Amreli thus exceeded 75 per cent and wide-spread distress soon became inevitable." The State suspended the entire revenue demand for the year, besides all the past arrears in the entire Amreli district except in Kodinar taluka where a part of the revenue was realised Over Rs. 27 lakhs were sanctioned for relief measures which were undertaken in the entire State. Rs. 50,000 were advanced as *tagavi* loans to cultivators in Amreli district for the sinking of wells, etc. The series of scarcity years resulted in continuous price rise of foodstuffs.

1911-12 was a year of a dire drought. A major part of the district suffered heavily. Amreli received barely 25 per cent of its average rainfall. In 1915-16 again, many parts of the district faced scarcity. The prices of fodder went on rising and it was feared that if there was no more rain, there

would be a serious fodder famine. The cultivators began to dispose of their surplus cattle from the beginning of August. Many sold away their cattle at a price which was about one-fourth of the normal. However, some rain in September-October relieved the situation to enable cultivators to raise *jowar* and other crops to some extent.

The year 1918-19 was again a scarcity year. All crops except *bajri* and cotton failed by 20 to 50 per cent. A great shortage of foodstuff was felt which resulted in a sharp rise in prices of food articles. A heavy incessant downpour for five days in June 1920 resulted in a devastating flood the like of which was not seen by people on the coastal areas particularly in Khambha and Kodinar of Amreli district. It rained as much as 24 to 25 inches in Kodinar within a period of four days. About 350 houses in Kodinar and 400 in Khambha were destroyed. Considerable damage was done to agricultural land No human life was, however, lost. The monsoon was not upto expectations between 1923 and 1925. The scarcity conditions in successive years told heavily on the material conditions of the peasantry. The ex-Baroda State was prompt in providing relief measures to the famine-striken areas. The machinery for providing the relief was so organised that as soon as the preliminary symptoms of famine became evident, a special officer known as Famine Commissioner, was appointed by the State to plan and organise relief operations. Special establishments were also opened for preparing important irrigation and drainage works which could be started during famine years. Usually, by the end of September when the failure of monsoon made a famine inevitable, relief works were opened at the appropriate places. These works became regular relief works if the increasing numbers attending the works justified it. The State made a special provision for the sinking of wells and advances were made from these funds to the agriculturists on easy terms, repayable in easy instalments spreading over 30 years. A large amount was sanctioned as advances to cultivators to enable them to purchase seed, agricultural implements, water lifts, etc. In case of scarcity of fodder, it was distributed to the cultivators from the State forests at reduced rates. Scarcity allowance was also given to the State servants whenever prices of foodgrains rose abnormally. Maintenance loans were granted to the subjects. Separate loans were also provided for artisan classes. Gratuitous relief to the aged and the infirm was also provided. Many public works including the Shetrunji dam and the Bhandaria tank in Amreli taluka and Pichhvi project in Kodinar taluka were thus constructed by the State in famine relief work. Similarly, the State also constructed a railway line to provide work to the famine-striken people. The railway line between Amreli and Chital in this district was thus constructed as a scarcity relief work.

The State prepared the Famine Code in 1899, which was revised in 1904. The Famine Code dealt in detail with the methods of exacting work from relief seekers, allotment of tasks, the fixing of wages, etc.

The district also experienced scarcity conditions during 1937-38, 1938-39 and 1948-49. While scarcities during the first two years were confined to Amreli taluka only, the last one covered a larger area including Amreli, Dhari and Lathi talukas. The year 1951-1952 recorded a rainfall of less than 10 inches in most of the talukas. A total of 329 villages of Amreli, Dhari, Khambha, Jafrabad and Lilia talukas were affected by scarcity. To provide relief in the affected areas, the Government spent a total of Rs. 2.66 lakhs during the year. The monsoon again failed in 1952-53 which necessitated continuation of the relief works started during the preceding year and involving an expenditure of Rs. 2.15 lakhs. In 1959-60, 140 villages of Rajula, Jafrabad and Lilia talukas were declared affected by scarcity. Government spent a total of over Rs. 3 lakhs in various relief measures.

Certain parts of the district including Lathi, Lilia, Babra and Vadia had scanty rainfall in the year 1962-63 which was the first major scarcity experienced by the district after the formation of the Gujarat State. The State Government was prompt enough to start relief measures involving an expenditure of nearly Rs. 13 lakhs. The year that followed also did not receive its normal rainfall As a result scarcity works were continued in the year 1963-64 also, and further in the years 1965-66 and 1966-67. The measures taken by the Government to mitigate the sufferings of people in the famine-striken areas included (i) opening of relief works, (ii) distribution of cash-doles to the aged and infirm persons, (iii) distribution of fodder at concessional rates and (iv) remission or suspension of land revenue.

Precarious Areas

The former Government of Bombay had appointed in 1958, a Fact Finding Committee for survey of scarcity areas in the State with a view to assessing the effects of famine and scarcity conditions and name the areas which should be treated as precarious areas deserving of being recommended for the future preventive and ameliorative measures to deal with similar threats. The Committee after visiting the district in November, 1959 classified Amreli, Khambha, Jafrabad, Rajula, Babra and Lilia as scarcity areas having scarcity conditions every ten years. The whole of Lathi taluka was declared as a precarious area having scarcity conditions every six years. Dhari, Kodinar and Kunkavav-Vadia were classified as scarcity-free areas.

The committee felt that the scope for new major or medium irrigation projects in this district was limited. It also observed that due to the undulating topography in most of the scarcity talukas a serious problem of

soil erosion is generally created which is sometimes aggravated by torrential showers. It, therefore, suggested that nearly 4 lakh acres of land in Lathi, Amreli, Lilia, Khambha, Jafrabad, Rajula and Babra could be protected by contour bunding. The committee also suggested to transfer areas classified as "barren and uncultivable lands" to the Forest Department for taking up afforestation. As seen earlier, measures to implement these recommendations have been taken up by Government by implementing schemes of contour bunding, afforestation, etc.

The severity of famine and scarcity years has been considerably reduced in recent years and especially after Independence owing to the facilities of movement and quick transportation of grass, food and even water by means of motor-tankers, etc. In olden days famine invariably implied suffering and death; at present it means shortage of food, higher prices and prevalence of unemployment. In the past, people died of starvation during famine years not because there was no food available in the region but more so because they had no money to buy it. The Famine Commission of 1880 had remarked, "Though there was enough food in the country to feed the entire population even in the worst years, people were lacking the means to purchase it." It was in this sense that many of the famines during the pre-Independence days were termed as food famines. At present, due to the various relief and ameliorative measures undertaken by our Government food famines of the past have almost disappeared. The famines are now not localised as the former handicaps of transportation have been almost overcome by the development of modern means of transport. As the things stand to-day, if food is not available locally, it can be had from the other parts of the country and if it is not available in the country itself, it can be imported from any part of the world. The adverse effects on the people in general and agriculturists in particular, have been substantially minimised by various activities of relief measures. The agriculturists are thus, at present in a far better position to withstand the ill-effects of famine or scarcity because their power of resistance has increased to a far greater extent than it was a few years ago.

Thus, it will appear that the food famines of the olden times have now become money famines. It is true that the complexion of the problem has changed with the tremendous transformation brought about under the impact of the Five Year Plans, but the crucial problem of food supply has not much changed. The possibility of deaths due to starvation on failure of food crops may be remote, but high prices of food grains and heavy cost involving imports of food grains from abroad have become a matter of great concern. Since 1955-56 the prices of food grains have shown a continuous upward trend. This has affected adversely agricultural

labourers and weaker sections for purchase of food grains for consumption in the urban areas. Instead of experiencing a pinch only in the years of drought, these classes have been subjected to a long and continuous period of high prices and some degree of privation.

The problem of famines, therefore, needs to be dealt with in the context of imbalance in the country's economy resulting from foreign rule and the inadequacy of the Government measures to deal with the basic problems of poverty, unemployment and underemployment.[1]

1. Bhatia B M, *Famines in India*, 1860-1965, (1967), p. 7

STATEMENTS

STATEMENT

Minor Irrigation

Sl. No.	Name of the scheme	Location Village/Taluka	Year of starting	Year of completion
1	2	3	4	5
1	Mota Ankadia Tank	Mota Ankadia, Amreli	1908	1914
2.	Mota Bhandaria Tank	Thordi, Amreli	1908	1911
3	Kumbhanath Tank	Damnagar, Lathi	N.A.	1913
4	Dhamel Tank .. .	Dhamel, Lathi	N.A.	1914
5.	Pichhvi Tank	Haramadia, Kodinar	1901-02	1911
6.	Zolapuri Irrigation Scheme ..	Mandal, Rajula	N.A.	1951
7.	Rupavati Irrigation Scheme ..	Devla, Dhari	1955	1958
8.	Kalubhar Irrigation Scheme ...	Kariana, Babra	1955	1958
9.	Padagala Bund Scheme . .	Khadadhar, Khambha	1958	1960
10.	Dhatarwadi Weir scheme ..	Pipalva, Khambha	1957	1960
11	Dedumal Scheme	Rugnathpur, Khambha	1958	1960
12.	Dhobiara Scheme ..	Kotdapitha, Babra	1959	1961
13.	Methali Scheme .. .	Methali, Lathi	1957	1961
14.	Piparala Tank Scheme	Sarasia, Dhari	1960	1962
15	Dhrufania Tank Scheme	Dhrufania Lathi	1961	1962
16.	Shetrunji Scheme	Malshika, Dhari	1963	1964
17	Kagwadi Weir Scheme ..	Virpur, Dhari	1964	1965

N. A.=Not available

Source .

Executive Engineer, Panchayat Division, Amreli.

IV.3

Schemes

Size (in metres)			Cost of construction in lakhs of Rs.	Storage capacity (in m. cu. m.)	Total estimated irrigation potential (in hectares)
Length	Maximum height	Top-width			
6	7	8	9	10	11
2,004	11	1.83	0.67	1.91	101
1,981	11	1.83	1.21	N.A.	N.A.
1,494	6	2.44	0.32	0.98	111
640	5	2.44	0.58	1 99	297
2,865	8	2.44	2.10	6 11	162
701	16	3.66	11.90	1.87	324
52	11	2.44	1.82	0.90	324
680	17	3.66	11.72	7.73	854
262	13	3.66	1.86	0.41	178
50	3	1 52	0 50	N.A.	194
72	4	1.52	1 38	N A.	259
189	N.A.	2 44	3.91	1.58	178
1,923	6	2 44	1.78	0 49	162
701	15	3 66	5.35	1 13	283
574	8	3 66	3.82	1 32	324
168	2	1.52	0.70	N.A.	142
49	4	1 52	1.17	N.A.	170

STATEMENT IV.6
Area of Principal Crops Irrigated by Taluka, 1965-66

(AREA IN HECTARES)

Crops 1	Amreli 2	Babra 3	Dhari 4	Jafrabad 5	Khambha 6	Kunkavav 7	Kodinar 8	Lathi 9	Lilia 10	Rajula 11	District Total 12
Total food crops ...	*4,915*	*2,509*	*2,647*	*597*	*597*	*2,891*	*9 772*	*5,003*	*1,027*	*3,447*	*33,405*
Rice	132	122	119	20	26	336	950	130	21	58	1,914
Wheat	3,786	1,913	1,602	428	448	1,802	1,228	3,195	518	1,012	15,932
Jowar . .	79	...	.	.	..	.	2,420	...	...	2,108	4,607
Bajri .	..	..	..	.	..	...	584	...	...	...	584
Maize ..	..	..	145	20	...	...	...	...	...	...	165
Sugar-cane	431	327	407	59	57	516	4,281	566	313	103	7,060
Chillies	187	93	64	31	8	25	52	1,080	175	21	1,735
Miscellaneous food crops	300	54	310	39	58	212	257	32	...	145	1,407
Total non-food crops ...	*1,974*	*3,580*	*847*	*136*	*98*	*932*	*400*	*1,409*	*96*	...	*9,472*
Cotton	920	...	501	..	.	.	.	850	...	...	2,271
Fodder crops .	1,053	3,580	342	136	98	932	400	517	96	...	7,154
Miscellaneous non-food crops	1	..	4	...	..	...	...	42	...	...	47
Total area under irrigated crops ...	*6,889*	*6,089*	*3,494*	*733*	*695*	*3,823*	*10,172*	*6,412*	*1,123*	*3,447*	*42,877*

Source : Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

STATEMENT IV.8
Area under Principal Crops by Taluka, 1965-66

(AREA IN HECTARES)

Crops 1		Amreli 2	Babra 3	Dhari 4	Jafrabad 5	Khambha 6	Kunkavav 7	Kodinar 8	Lathi 9	Lilia 10	Rajula 11	District Total 12
Total food crops	...	*27,647*	*19,445*	*26,122*	*15,816*	*7,130*	*18,730*	*23,657*	*23,907*	*15,812*	*31,634*	*209,900*
Rice	...	132	122	119	20	26	336	950	130	21	58	1,914
Wheat	...	3,786	1,913	1,602	429	448	1,802	1,839	3,195	629	1,015	16,658
Jowar	..	9,873	11,227	6,843	3,298	1,230	8,655	3,027	9,372	5,678	7,492	66,695
Bajri	...	12,702	5,430	15,593	11,331	5,010	7,014	12,524	9,370	8,916	21,370	109,260
Maize	...	...	34	145	19	47	64	201	...	6	18	534
Other cereals	..	...	65	..	...		14	17	2	...	..	98
Tatal cereals	...	*26,493*	*18,791*	*24 302*	*15,097*	*6,761*	*17,885*	*18,558*	*22,069*	*15,250*	*29,953*	*195,159*
Gram	...	42	31	41	188	1	3	13	45	23	2	389
Mag	...	49	36	168	6	18	39	13	39	2	85	455
Black gram	...	113	39	276	389	143	45	428	23	43	1,241	2,740
Horse gram	...	6	...	402	...	50	...	...	19	2	76	555
Math	...	25	...	148	...	35	4	15	33	1	8	269
Other pulses	...	2	70		6	..	1	29	..	2	.	110
Total pulses	...	*237*	*176*	*1,035*	*589*	*247*	*92*	*498*	*159*	*73*	*1,412*	*4,518*
Sugar-cane	...	431	327	407	59	57	516	4,281	566	313	103	7,060
Chillies	...	186	93	65	31	8	25	51	1,080	175	21	1,735
Other condiments and spices	..	73	..	3	...	...	...	12	...	...	...	88

STATEMENT IV.8—*contd.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Total condiments and spices	*259*	*93*	*61*	*31*	*8*	*25*	*63*	*1,080*	*175*	*21*	*1,823*
Mango	26		178		35		121			57	417
Papaya	3			1		70	..		.	.	74
Other fruits	18			..	.	5	29	9		...	61
Total fruits	*47*		*178*	*1*	*35*	*75*	*150*	*9*		*57*	*552*
Carrot	.	4	66	..	2	41	20		..	...	133
Brinjal	93	44	43	39	13	51	47	8	.	79	417
Other vegetables	87	10	23	..	7	45	40	16	1	9	238
Total vegetables	*180*	*58*	*132*	*39*	*22*	*137*	*107*	*24*	*1*	*88*	*788*
Total non-food crops	*45,918*	*37,967*	*55,888*	*8,955*	*18,711*	*51,229*	*15,608*	*29,599*	*16.553*	*28,219*	*308,647*
Cotton	1,490	2,116	1,521	10	192	769	221	1,709	2,352	8	10,388
Jute	1				.	..	..	..	.	.	1
Groundnut	41,040	30.917	37,705	3 570	12,582	48,153	11,647	26,099	11,612	21,312	244,637
Sesamum	1,032	1,354	2,129	4,542	361	298	1,728	945	1,210	3,524	17,123
Castor	1		64	.	...	2	289	101	68	..	525
Total oilseeds	42,073	32,271	39,898	8,112	12,943	48,453	13,664	27,145	12,890	24,836	262,285
Tobacco	.	1	4		..	..	12	1	..	1	19
Total fodder crops	*2,354*	*3,579*	*14,465*	*819*	*5,576*	*2,007*	*1,711*	*744*	*1,299*	*3,374*	*35,928*
Miscellaneous non-food crops			..	14	...	.	...	..	12	...	26
Total area under food and non-food crops	*73,565*	*57,412*	*82,010*	*24,771*	*25,841*	*69,959*	*39,265*	*53,506*	*32,365*	*59,853*	*518,547*

Source :

Directorate of Agriculture, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

OLD TIME INDUSTRIES

The Amreli district is primarily agricultural, still it is famous for its cottage industries and handicrafts notably weaving, dyeing and calico printing. These handicrafts catered to the requirements of cloth in the rural areas. The methods of production were rather primitive and mainly coarse cloth was woven and printed.

The former *Baroda Gazetteer* lists the following industries which flourished on an extensive scale in past in the district. These are (1) weaving, (2) dyeing and calico printing, (3) gold and silver ornaments, and (4) knot-printing. These industries subsequently received a great set-back. In the opinion of *Baroda State Gazetteer*, "The increasing competition of machinery, and the cheapness of foreign articles, are rapidly crushing the cottage industries of Baroda out of existence. Recent political activities have tended to encourage some few of these especially weaving, but it is to be feared that this revival is somewhat artificial. The home or cottage industries which flourished under the more simple and placid conditions of the past are probably doomed, regret the fact how we may."[1]

On Way to Industrialisation—Industrialisation is quite a recent phase in the economic development of the country and its various regions. Amreli district, as constituted at present, was not fortunate in receiving the benefits as compared to other districts of Saurashtra peninsula. "The constant dread of feudal wars and the consequent instability of the political government were great hindrances in the way of the wide spread growth of economic activities. In the absence of security of life and property, industry received neither encouragement nor impetus at the hands of the then trading communities and whatever industries were there, they were in the nature of handicrafts or cottage industries."[2] The second half of the past century, however, witnessed the beginning of some industrial activity in the modern sense of the term. In Amreli district, the cotton ginning and pressing factories were started as cotton happened to be the most important raw material available in the country. Along with the cotton ginning and pressing factories mention may also be made of salt industry. The salt works owned by Kathiawar Industries near Jafrabad were started in 1944-45 by acquiring lands from the Janjira State. Similarly, the Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works at Bherai were started in 1945.

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1 DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, Bombay, (1923), p. 404.

2 TRIVEDI A. B., *Kathiawar Economics*, Bombay, (1943), p. 117.

For rapid industrial development in its territories of which Amreli Prant formed part, the Baroda State had taken active interest. The *Baroda State Gazetteer* states : "The second period in industrial development dates from the early nineties, when the Kalabhavan and the Museum were started in Baroda, a number of students were sent to Europe to acquire first hand knowledge of industries; railways were built all over the State; loans were given to new industries at a low rate of interest and custom duties were revised. The result of these various activities was the rise of a number of small industries, such as flour and rice mills, cotton ginning and pressing factories As was to be expected, these met with varying fortunes[1]." In 1905, a special Department of Commerce and Industry was organised in the Baroda State. The Bank of Baroda was also established It must, however, be pointed out that despite the active interest shown by the former Baroda State, from the view point of industrial development, the former Amreli Prant lagged behind considerably.

After Independence, however, some schemes for promoting industrial development were undertaken. As a result, some new industries came into existence. In oil milling, the Amreli Oil Mills and Industries, Amreli was established in 1948 and Shri Madhav Oil Mills in 1949. After merger in 1949, the industrial activities got fillip and some oil mills were established. Among the new oil mills established between 1949 and 1968, mention must be made of Shri Abhechand Manekchand Oil Mills, Bagasara (1954),[2] Shri Krishna Oil Mills, Dungar (1958), Gopalkrishna Oil Mills, Bagasara (1961), Shri Nagaria Oil Mills, Lathi (1963) and Shri Amrit Oil Mills, Bagasara (1968). In weaving industries, reference may be made to the Balwant Silk Weaving Works, Amreli (1949), Messers Laxmi Silk Weaving Factory, Amreli (1952), the Ashok Industries, Bagasara (1962) and the Saurashtra Industries, Bagasara (1962). The silk works weave linen cloth, cotton cloth and Pachhedi (પછેડી). The Laxmi Silk Weaving Factory weave linen cloth The Ashok Industries and the Saurashtra Industries manufactures coarse cloth and khadi A prominent large scale sugar factory run by Shri Bileshwar Khand Udhyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd., Kodinar (1958) is a landmark in the industrial development of the district It produces sugar and manufactures industrial alchohol. Inspite of the establishment of new industries, the district still remains industrially backward eventhough there are good natural resources in it,[3] as revealed by the survey of small scale industries conducted by the office of the Commissioner of Industries.

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1 DESAI G H AND CLARKE A B, *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, *General Information*, Bombay, (1923), p. 406

2 Years in the bracket indicate the year in which the factory was established

3. Government of Gujarat, Director of Industries, *Survey of Small Scale Industries*, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad, (1969), p. 61.

The handicrafts and cottage industries, are no less important in the context of industrialisation and employment. They have been given Government assistance in the form of loans, technical know-how and marketing facilities, cheap power, land, etc.

POWER

The development and economic prosperity of a region are judged by its industrial and agricultural growth. Power is the prime necessity and the generation of power and its consumption by industry and agriculture are the indices of its development. There were two power houses in the district located at Dhari and Amreli. Power was also supplied to the town of Chalala and villages of Kami, Kerala and Samadhiala in Dhari taluka from the power house of Savarkundla of Bhavnagar district. These power houses, were privately owned. In reorganisation of the district in 1959, power houses of Lathi, Bagasara, Rajula and Vadia were added to the existing two power houses at Amreli and Dhari.

After the formation of the Gujarat State, it became possible to plan the power resources on an integreted basis. Till the beginning of the Third Five Year Plan, the power needs of district were met by the power stations of Lathi, Rajula, Amreli, Bagasara and Vadia. The table given below indicates the installed generating capacity, units generated and units sold by each power house during the year 1959-60 :—

Sl No.	Name of the power house	Installed capacity Kw.	Units generated in million Kwh.	Units sold in million Kwh.
1	2	3	4	5
1	Lathi	786	0.625	0.450
2.	Rajula	360	0.224	0.172
3	Amreli	50	N.A.	N.A.
4.	Bagasara	290	N A.	N.A.
5.	Vadia	90	N.A.	N.A.

N. A.=Not available

Source: The Secretary, Gujarat Electricity Board, Baroda.

After 1959-60, no additional generating capacity was added during the Third Plan, because the district came to be connected to the Dhuvaran Thermal Power Station through the 132 Kv. receiving station at Dhasa. As a result of the grid supply, all these diesel-power houses were closed down.

Rural Electrification

An important object of the Third Five Year Plan was to develop efficient small scale industries in small towns and in rural areas so as to increase employment opportunities, raise incomes and living standard and

ring about a more balanced and diversified rural economy.. In achieving these objectives, the major limiting factor was the lack of power. With the supply of electricity, it becomes possible to reorganise the traditional industries and to introduce small industries based on steadily improving techniques in order to meet the new needs of the expanding rural economy. Viewed in this context, the scheme of rural electrification assumes great significance. The table given below shows the progress in the electrification of towns and villages in the district :—

Sl No	Year 1	Towns 2	Villages 3	Total 4
1	As on 31-3-1951	3	..	3
2	,, ,, 31-3-1961	8	8	16
3	,, ,, 31-3-1966	13	39	52
4	,, ,, 31-3-1967	13	55	68
5	,, ,, 31-3-1968	13	68	81
6	,, ,, 31-3-1969	13	79	92

Source :
Industries, Mines and Power Department, Ahmedabad.

The above statistics show that for obvious reasons power was supplied to the urban areas before First Five Year Plan. A beginning was made to supply power to rural areas in the Second Five Year Plan period. By the end of Second Plan 8 towns and 8 villages were electrified. Greater progress was made in rural electrification in the Third Plan period, with the result that by the end of the year 1965-66, 13 towns and 39 villages were electrified in the district. In the subsequent three years as many as 40 more village areas have been electrified for agricultural purposes.

Rural Electrification in Kodinar Taluka

In the sphere of rural electrification the co-operators of the Kodinar taluka have blazed a new trail. They have established a special pilot project of rural electrification and distribution at an estimated cost of Rs. 2 crores with the help of U S A I D. The project is to cover 64 villages of Kodinar taluka of the Amreli district and 63 villages of Una taluka of the Junagadh district. The project aims at boosting farm output by providing irrigational facilities, and helping agro-industries in the region. The scheme will benefit the farmers in area of 24.14 kms.

Kinds of Power or Fuel used

In every 1,000 establishments worked by power and fuel in the district, 226 are worked by various forms of power or fuel and 774 without power. The following table shows the distribution of establishments and the persons employed according to kind of power or fuel used in 1961, as returned by the Housing and Establishments Census.

Distribution of Establishments and Persons Employed According to Kind of Power or Fuel Used, 1961

Total/ Rural/ Urban 1	Kind of power or fuel used 2	No. of units 3	No. of persons employed 4
Total	**Electricity**	**113**	**366**
	Liquid fuel	**465**	**1,835**
	Coal, wood and bagasse	**350**	**917**
	Other power	**13**	**46**
	No power	**3,221**	**7,032**
		4,162	*10,196*
Rural	Electricity	12	24
	Liquid fuel	284	674
	Coal, wood and bagasse	174	383
	Other power	6	13
	No power	2,147	4,479
Urban	Electricity	101	342
	Liquid fuel	181	1,161
	Coal, wood and bagasse .	176	534
	Other power	7	33
	No power	1,074	2,553

Source:

Census of India, 1961, Vol. V, Gujarat, Part IV-B, *Housing and Establishments Tables*, (*E—Series Tables*)

The above table shows that out of the total number of 4,162 units, 3,221 do not use any power or fuel and among the remaining units, 113 establishments work by electrical power, 465 by liquid fuel and 350 by coal, wood and bagasse and 13 by other power. Out of the total 113 units worked by electricity, 101 units are in the urban areas and only 12 in the rural areas. This shows that the greater use of electricity in the rural areas is not made either due to want of electric power or want of equipment. Secondly, in the case of 465 units worked by liquid fuel, large number of units (284) are found in the rural areas, as against 181 units in the urban areas. This indicates that rural areas depend more on liquid fuel in the absence of provision for electric power. The greater use of the liquid fuel in villages is due to the existence of small scale and cottage industries.

On the side of employment, units working without power provide the optimum employment. This is followed by the 465 units worked by liquid fuel, which provide employment to 1,835 persons. Next in order of employment come 350 units worked by coal, wood and bagasse. The units worked by electricity provide employment to the minimum number of persons (366) This may be due presumably to the improved mechanical equipments The predominance of units worked without power is found in the rural areas due to the existence of craftsmen and artisans who are mostly self-employed.

Mining

The pattern of mineral production in the district is simple and its value not very high at present The known minerals of the district are calcite, other building stone, *kankar*, limestone, murrum, ordinary clay, sand and salt The scientific exploration of the mineral resources and formulation of plans for their exploitation and industrial utilisation are vital stages in the industrial development of the district.

The following statement gives figures of the minerals produced in the district for the years 1966-67 and 1967-68

STATEMENT V.1

Quantity, Value, Number of Quarries and Labour Employed in Mineral Production in Amreli District

Sl No	Mineral	Production (in m tonnes)		Value in Rs		Total number of quarries		Total number of persons employed	
		1966-67	1967-68	1966-67	1967-68	1966-67	1967-68	1966-67	1967-68
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Calcite	711	466	540	500	2	2	On contract basis	
2	Other building stones	32,494	40,890	32,500	45,000	100	12	1,000	1,600
3	*Kankar*	130	100	40	100	5	..	15	..
4	Limestone	3,605	2,418	20,000	2,500	10	16	400	400
5	Murrum	17	790	15	395	2	5	3	10
6	Ordinary clay	495	2,350	250	250	5	5	30	15
7	Sand	6,071	4,730	5,000	3,500	13	..	100	15
8.	Bentonite	.	570	.	3,000	.	3	.	40
	Total ..	**43,523**	**52,314**	**58,545**	**55,245**	**137**	**43**	**1,548**	**2,080**

Source

The Royalty Inspector, Amreli

From the statement, it appears that from the point of view of production and value, three minerals are important in the district, *viz.*, building stone, limestone and sand. The building stone and sand are mainly available from the stone quarries and coastal area of Rajula. Limestone is available in the coastal area on the southern side of the district, *i. e.*, Jafrabad and round about. Building stone and sand are used as building materials and limestone is utilised for manufacture of cement.

GUJARAT MINERAL DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION LTD.

Pursuant to the Industrial Policy Resolution, 1956, the Gujarat Mineral Development Corporation Ltd., has been established as a public sector enterprise in 1963 with the object of exploring and exploiting mineral resources. It started with an initial authorised capital of Rs. 50 lakhs which has now been raised to Rs. 200 lakhs. The issued and subscribed capital amounts to Rs. 74 lakhs. The Corporation is expected to play a decisive role in the development of mineral based industries in the State. It has not undertaken any such work in Amreli district so far.

THE 1961 CENSUS

Establishments

The 1961 Census has thrown up important data relating to the economic condition of the people (i) by undertaking for the first time a complete Census of industrial establishments in the country and (ii) by so enlarging the scope of the questionnaire on the individual enumeration slip, as to yield a large number of economic tables, published in its general as well as household series According to the Housing and Establishments Census, the Amreli district has returned a total number of 4,162 establishments engaged in the production of goods and employing 10,503 persons in the various branches of industry operated on household as well as non-household basis

Statement V.2 given at the end of the Chapter shows the importance of establishments engaged in the making of textile garments including raincoats and headgear, manufacture of other wood and allied products, manufacture of sundry hardwares such as galvanised iron pipe, wire net, bolt, screw, bucket, cutlery, production of rice, *atta*, flour, etc., by milling, dehusking and processing of crops and foodgrains, manufacture of shoes and other leather footwears etc. The other industries worthy of note in the district are cotton weaving in handlooms, manufacture of jewellery, silverware and wares using gold and other precious metals, production of other food products such as sweetmeat and condiments, coca, chocolate, toffee, lonzenge, manufacture of *bidi*, production of edible fats and oils (other than hydrogenated oil), etc.

While there is some degree of diversification in industries, traditional artisans and craftsmen such as carpenters, tailors, goldsmiths, shoemakers, etc., are still found to hold their own in the economy of the district.

TRENDS OF INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

The trends of industrial development during the last decade 1956-65 in the district are reflected in the number of factories and workers compared in Statement V.3 given at the end of this Chapter.[1] It will be observed that the period from 1956 to 1960 was a period of expansion and period from 1961 to 1965 appears to be a period of consolidation of the existing industrial development. In view of the extensive area under groundnut, over 28 oil mills have been established There are 12 ginning and pressing factories because of good cotton crop in the district. Besides, there are two weaving mills in Amreli and six powerloom factories in Amreli, Bagasara and Rajula.

Since Kodinar taluka is a centre of sugar-cane production, the Bileshwar Co-operative Sugar Factory has been established with modern machinery As the district has got a large seacoast, salt is manufactured in four big salt works located at Jafrabad and Rajula.

Stone quarries in Rajula provide employment to skilled and unskilled labourers During the five year period from 1956 to 1960 the factories increased from 37 to 55 and the number of workers from 970 to 1,987. Between 1960 and 1965 the increase in number of factories was nil. The number of factories was 54 in 1965 The decrease in number of factories may be attributed to slackness noticed in the tempo of industrial activity. Efforts, however, were made to maintain the existing rate of industrial development. This is evident from the fact that between 1960 and 1965 the number of factories decreased by one only

Though practically there is no increase in the number of factories there is, however, substantial increase in the number of workers from 1,987 in 1960 to 2,736 in 1965 This may be attributed to the consolidation and modernisation of existing industrial units. Except manufacture of miscellaneous food preparation where the number has increased from 839 workers in 1960 to 1,735 in 1965, the number of workers in other industries has remained practically stationary. The fact that number of workers in other industries did not register increase as compared to miscellaneous food preparation may partly be due to slow rate of industrial development as also full utilisation of existing capacity.

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1 Bureau of Economics and Statistics, *Location of Industries in Gujarat State*, Ahmedabad, 1956-60

LARGE SCALE INDUSTRIES

The following statistics of Annual Survey of Industries, 1965 covering factories employing 50 or more workers using power and 100 or more workers without power reveal the progress made by the large scale industrial units in the district :—

Large Scale Factories, 1965

Sl. No.	Items	Unit	Amreli district
1.	Number of factories	Number	7
2.	Productive capital	Rs. in ('000)	21,852
3.	Persons employed	Number	1,280
4	Output	Rs. in ('000)	30,946
5.	Net value added by manufacture	Rs. in ('000)	5,986

Source :
Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics, Vol. VIII, No. I January-March, (1968), Ahmedabad, p. 115.

From the foregoing statement, it is observed that the district cannot boast of having a large number of industries as the economy of the district is predominantly agricultural. The major large scale industries in the district are confined to miscellaneous food preparation, groundnut oil industry and salt.

REGISTERED FACTORIES

According to the returns furnished by the Chief Inspector of Factories, the total number of registered factories was 57 in 1965. Among these factories, 52 factories in the private sector predominate. The public sector accounts for only 5 factories. According to the prescribed industrial classification, their break-up is given in the following Statement V.4. Among the factories in the private sector, 47 were actually working in 1965 and 5 were closed.

STATEMENT V.4

Registered Factories and Workers, 1965

Sl. No 1	Name of the industry 2	Total number of factories 3	Total number of working factories 4	Total number of working factories submitting returns 5	Average number of workers employed daily in working factories 6
	I PUBLIC SECTOR				
1.	Transport equipment ...	2	2	2	66
2.	Electricity, gas and steam ..	3	3	1	29
	Total	*5*	*5*	*3*	*95*
	II PRIVATE SECTOR				
1	Processes allied to Agriculture (gins and presses) . .	1	1	1	38
2.	Food (except beverages) ..	46	41	37	2,416
3	Textiles	4	4	4	119
4.	Non-metallic mineral products (except machinery and transport equipment)	1	1	...	33
	Total	*52*	*47*	*42*	*2,606*
	Grand Total ...	57	52	45	2,701

Source.

The Chief Inspector of Factories, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad

Both from the view point of employment and number the most important units in the private sector are food (except beverages) and textiles. The industries in operation cover a fairly good range of products based on local raw materials like cotton, groundnut, sugar-cane, salt, etc. The extensive production of groundnut in recent times is responsible for establishment of a number of oil-mills located at certain favourable centres like Amreli, Damnagar, Kodinar and Dhari. Salt industry has also shown progress and accounts for 4 salt works in the district.

The particulars of the most important among large scale industries are given below :

THE SAURASHTRA SALT WORKS PRIVATE LTD., PORT VICTOR

The Saurashtra Salt Works Private Ltd. was established in 1956 with a lease of about 851.459 hectares of land at Port Victor in survey No. 34 of Pipavav and survey No. 122 of Kathivadar village in the Rajula taluka. For operating the works the company obtained licence from the Salt Department in 1960 for 25 years with effect from 3rd July, 1956. In 1963, the company obtained a further lease of an area of 686.752 hectares of land in survey Nos. 197/1 and 70/1 of Chanch and Khira villages respectively. For this additional area another licence was obtained from the Salt Department for a further period of 20 years from 2nd February, 1963. Thus the salt works comprise 2 separate plots which cover an area of 1,538.211 hectares. The area under cultivation is as under :—

	In hectares
Reservoirs	169.159
Condensers	1,056 220
Crystallizers	122.620
Paths, store, fallow land, etc.	71.225
Total	1,419 224

The salt works are situated on the edges of the Motapat creek near the villages of Port Victor and Chanch. The nearest railway station is Port Victor. The works have constructed sets of automatic sluice gates for taking in brine during tides and have installed necessary pumping stations to pump the same as per their requirements. The works are laid out with 21 gauge track and the salt is transported from the crystallizers in wagons by manual labour. The works have got five old locomotives which are being used to bring loaded salt bags from the platforms to the jetties. They have built their own jetties and have installed crushing mills to crush their salt for despatch. The salt works have not been mechanised yet. The works maintain their own power-house and a workshop for petty repairs.

There is neither slacker nor belt conveyor for automatic loading of salt into barges. The steamer anchores at about a distance of six to seven miles from the jetty. The fleet is being taken on hire from the Port Department when they get any steamer. No labour quarters have been built. Sweet water is to be brought from about four miles away from the works by trucks having their arrangements.

In 1966-67 the unit employed 432 persons and disbursed Rs. 2.85 lakhs as wages and salaries The products manufactured are salt and gypsum. The potential capacity of the salt works to manufacture salt is 110,000 metric tonnes The production of salt falls below the potential capacity. The works are, therefore, under utilised. This is evident from the following table -

Year	Production in metric tonnes
1965	80,245
1966	73,310
1967	58,408
1968	58,610
1969 (upto May)	62,796

Production of gypsum was undertaken only in 1964 and 1968 when it amounted to 2,406 and 575 metric tonnes respectively.

The salt is sent to following places, *viz.*, Calcutta, Bombay, Bulsar, Broach, Surat, etc Outside the country it is also exported to Nepal, Japan and Phillipines

Cess is levied on the consumption of salt in India and is recovered on the issue of salt from the factory. No cess is, however, recovered for export of salt outside India The following amounts were recovered as cess :—

Year	Amount of cess Rs
1966	172,400
1967	171,400
1968	119,600
1969 (upto May)	51,300

THE JUNAGADH SALT AND ALLIED CHEMICAL WORKS, BHERAI (RAJULA TALUKA)

The Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works were established in 1945 with a lease of an area of 163.492 hectares in Bherai, Rajula taluka from the Junagadh State. Subsequently in 1953 additional lease of 399.627 hectares was taken from the Saurashtra Government. Thus the total leased land worked out to 563.120 hectares. The works have two separate units of land for the manufacture of salt called old *agar* and new *agar*.

The salt works are situated at the Motapat creek near Bherai village in Rajula taluka. The nearest railway station is Rajula which lies at a distance of 14 kms. from the salt works. The works have constructed sets of automatic sluice gates for taking in brine during tidal actions and have installed necessary pumping stations to pump the same as per their requirements. The works have laid down 2′ guage track and the salt is transported from the crystallizer in wagons by manual labour. The works have built their own jetties and have installed crushing mills to crush their salt for onward despatch. They have not been mechanised yet. They have their own fleet. However, sometimes barges are hired to cope up with additional work. The steamer anchors at a distance of about 11.27 kms., from their jetties. They have two old locomotives which are used in bringing salt bags from the sidings to the jetty and loose salt to the salt heaps. The works maintain their own power house and small workshop for petty repairs. Major repair is being done either at Rajula or at Mahuva.

In 1966-67, the works employed 98 persons and disbursed Rs. 96,777 as wages and salaries. Salt and gypsum are manufactured by the works.

Production figures from the year 1965 to May, 1969 are as follows :—

Year	Production in metric tonnes
1965	41,000
1966	39,000
1967	32,000
1968	30,000
1969 (upto May)	26,000

The present capacity of the works range bewteen 65,000 to 70,000 metric tonnes of salt per year. But the salt works manufacture salt in the neighbourhood of 39,000 metric tonnes. The works are under utilised. The production of gypsum was undertaken only in 1967 when it amounted to 500 metric tonnes.

The salt is sent to Bihar, U. P., Assam, Calcutta, Bombay, Surat, Broach, Bulsar and is also exported to Japan.

The cess recovered from the factory for consumption of salt in India is stated below :—

Year	Amount of cess in Rs.
1966	22,500
1967	32,400
1968	69,100
1969 (upto May)	5,100

KATHIAWAR INDUSTRIES LIMITED, JAFRABAD

The Kathiawar Industries Ltd., Jafrabad owns salt works called the Nawab Sidi Mohamad Khan Salt Works. The salt works came to be established in 1944 under an agreement executed in 1943 between the Janjira State (Jafrabad being dependency of Janjira State) and Khan Bahadur Faiz Mohmad Khan of the Dilawar Syndicate, Ltd., Junagadh, who was the promoter of salt works. This syndicate is the managing agent of the salt works The works were granted a monopoly for a period of 30 years to manufacture salt at Jafrabad subject to the rules and regulations as might be framed by the Government of India from time to time regulating the production and distribution of salt.

The works are situated on the edges of the Mitiala creek in close proximity of Jafrabad town which lies on the southern coast of the Saurashtra peninsula. The nearest railway station from the works is Rajula at a distance of 32.19 kms. The Company has constructed a set of automatic sluice gates for taking in brine during tides and has installed necessary pumping stations to pump the brine in the salt pans A 2′ gauge track has been laid and salt is transported from the crystallisers in wagons on this track

The total area leased to the works admeasures about 1,410 hectares, out of which land admeasuring 1,355 hectares have been obtained from the former Janjira State The salt works comprises two separate units, *viz.*, Part A and B which are separated by the creek.

	Hectares
Part A	716 091
Part B	639 404
Total	**1,355 495**

At present Part A is only used for preparing salt. The details about the land used at present is as follows

Part A		Hectares
1	Reservoirs	445.154
2	Condensers	224 601
3	Crystallizers	24 281
4	Paths, ridges roads, storage ground, etc	4.046
5	Crushing mill, godowns, quarters, etc	1.820
		699 902
	Unutilized area	16.187
	Total	**716 091**

In 1966-67, the works employed 185 persons and disbursed wages and salaries to the extent of Rs. 177,561. The products manufactured are salt and gypsum.

The potential capacity of the salt works is 120,000 metric tonnes. However, as they do not use Part B, the existing capacity is not utilised fully. The statement given below shows the production of salt :

Year	Production in metric tonnes
1965	30,000
1966	32,500
1967	30,500
1968	32,000
1969 (upto May)	19,863

The statement reveals that the production of salt is far below the potential capacity of the salt works. The production of gypsum was undertaken only in 1965 and 1968 when it amounted to 1,910 and 3,000 metric tonnes respectively.

The salt is sent by rail to following places, *viz.*, Assam, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. It is also sent by sea to Bombay, Surat, Broach, Bulsar, Calcutta and Japan.

The statement given below indicates quantities of salt exported to Japan.

Year	Metric tonnes
1966	16,417
1967	7,800
1968	19,331

The amount of cess recovered from the factory for salt consumed in India are as follows :

Year	Amount of cess in Rs.
1966	172,400
1967	171,400
1968	191,600
1969 (upto May) . ..	51,300

SHREE BILESHWAR KHAND UDYOG KHEDUT SAHAKARI MANDLI LTD., KODINAR

Processing of sugar-cane on co-operative basis is a new industrial activity in the district and has been undertaken since 1956 in the co-operative sector by Shree Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd., Kodinar. In the past, efforts were made in 1945-46 by the officers of the Baroda State to shift a plant of 400 tonnes capacity from Gandevi (Surat district) to Kodinar. However, as the merger of the Baroda State was in the offing, the plant could not be shifted to Kodinar. In 1950-51, the sugar-cane growers of Kodinar started negotiations with Bombay Government to

establish a sugar factory with a capacity of 400 to 500 tonnes at the cost of Rs. 40 lakhs. But as the *gur* price was high, the need for a sugar factory was not keenly felt Thereafter, Seth Shri Nanji Kalidas of Porbandar and Shri Jivanlal Motichand of Chorwad, made some efforts for setting up a sugar factory Some co-operators of Kodinar taluka notably Shri Ramsinh Naranbhai Vala keenly felt an urge to establish such factory. They, therefore, visited the sugar factories at Bardoli and Kopergaon and discussed the problem with Shri Jivraj Mehta, the then Finance Minister of the Bombay State. It was unanimously decided to have a sugar factory at Kodinar having regard to the potential available there Accordingly a co-operative society called Shree Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd., was registered on 18th August, 1956 and a license for the factory was obtained on 8th February, 1957. But the factory was actually commissioned in 1959-60 This was because the society had to encounter some hurdles in the initial stages After 9 days of its work, the rotter of the power-turbine was damaged with the result that the factory stopped working. Subsequently, a new rotter was obtained from West Germany which also broke down after three days, and hence the regular production could be dated from the year 1960-61

At present the society has 3,093 members. The State Government is also a member of the society. Its total share capital is Rs. 7,000,000 out of which State Government has contributed Rs 2,000,000. The co-operative society has obtained a loan of Rs. 60 lakhs from the Industrial Finance Corporation on the guarantee of Government of India The loan has already been repaid in 1965 Similarly, in order to meet internal expenditure two medium-term loans amounting to Rs 51 lakhs and Rs. 14 lakhs have also been obtained from the Gujarat State Co-operative Bank, on the guarantee of State Government. These loans have also been repaid. The loan debt which remains to be paid to the Gujarat State Co-operative Bank is of the order of Rs 19 lakhs.

In the Kodinar taluka, sugar-cane is grown for the last 50 years. The rainfall in the Kodinar taluka which varies between 50 to 70 inches is adequate for the sugar-cane cultivation Moreover, the sugar-cane crop at present is grown with the help of improved variety. The variety grown at present is CO-419 The society has provided sufficient incentive to its members for growing sugar-cane crop It advances Rs 600 at the rate of six per cent in form of oil-cake, manures and crude oil to its members with the result the area under cultivation of cane crop which was 1,011.715 hectares in 1958-59 has increased to 6,070 290 hectares in 1968-69.

In 1967, the factory employed 490 persons and disbursed Rs. 1,577,046 as wages and salaries. The statement given below shows the performance of the factory between the years 1964-65 and 1968-69 (upto 25th, February),

The Total Sugar-cane Crop Crushed and Sugar Produced between the Years 1964-65 and 1968-69

Items	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69 (upto 30-6-69)
Number of days during which crushing of sugar-cane was undertaken .	228	205	175	197	221
Total cane crushed (in tonnes) ..	269,265.287	243,697.836	204,466.895	244,551.736	310,871
Sugar produced (in gunny bags) ...	278,753	271,738	224,419	273,385	210,000

Besides sugar, the society has also undertaken the production of industrial alcohol by using its bye-product, *viz*, molasses. A distillery plant having a capacity of 2,500 gallons per day has been installed. It has since started functioning and the annual net sales for the year ending 30th June, 1969 totalled to Rs. 8.45 lakhs.

It may be observed that among the sugar factories run on an co-operative basis in India, this factory stands fifth but in crushing of sugar-cane, it stands first. Of late, it has undertaken an ambitious programme for expanding its crushing capacity from 1,500 tonnes to 2,600 tonnes per day at an estimated cost of Rs. 2¼ crores. It has received a licence from the Central Government on 3rd October, 1968 for this purpose. An order has also been placed for the required machinery.

Small Scale and Cottage Industries

The vital role of small scale and cottage industries in the industrialisation of district is fully recognised, because they make a significant contribution in realising the objectives of more employment, larger production and more equitable distribution. The Amreli district has been famous for a number of small scale and cottage industries of which handloom weaving is the most important. In his book on "*Kathiawar Economics*" Prof. A. B. Trivedi points out :

> "History of handloom weaving industry of Amreli will be of more interest here. It was considered to be an important weaving centre in Kathiawar before the competition from foreign and machine-made cloth was felt. Until more recent times, the use of hand-spun yarn was extensive in this region. The use of Khadi was more common than in the rest of Gujarat when the first movement towards Khadi was started. But the reasons for the downfall of this industry are not far to seek. The import of fine cloth such as Long-cloth, Mulls etc., and those with fancy effects and colours caught the eye not only of the well-to-do people but also found favour with farmers and others in

remote villages. It was no wonder therefore, that the cheap machine-made articles deprived the local weavers, dyers and calico-printers of their ancestral occupation. Thereafter, Amreli's Vanjahs, Tais and Antyaj Weavers began to use mostly mill yarn and to weave various types and designs of cloth mostly in demand by labourers and farmers : special cloth produced by them being : 'Chofals' (Wrappers), 'Pachhedis' (for winding round the waist), 'Pania' (used as turban) 'Dhotis' 'Thepadas' and 'Sadlas' (to meet the requirements of the shepherd class) and Khadi "

"The weavers survey carried on by the Baroda Government in 1932 showed that a greater percentage of weavers were in debt and that for the most part, yarn merchants were their money-lenders."[1]

"The Baroda State has evinced keen interest in the weaving industry and under the supervision of the Gram Punarghatana-Samiti at Amreli, now and then demonstrations are given in sizing and weaving hand-spun yarn, tape-making, weaving, preparing cards, gofnus as well as moria and jotras for bullocks, etc."

The chief centres of handloom weaving industry at present in the district are Amreli, Khari Khijadia in Amreli taluka, Chalala in Dhari taluka, Damnagar and Chavand in Lathi taluka and Panadar in Kodinar taluka and Bagasara in Kunkavav-Vadia taluka. The Bagasara centre is probably the most important centre in the district producing handloom cloth annually valued at Rs. 4 to 5 lakhs. In the view of this importance, Gandhiji called it the 'Manchester of Saurashtra.' Apart from handloom weaving industry, leather works and tanneries, *gur*-making, metal works, etc., also deserve mention.

Small Scale Industries

Since latest complete data regarding the distribution of all the small scale and cottage industries in the district are not available, the results of the sample survey of 16 selected industries carried out by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics during 1960-61 are summarised below.

During the survey, an establishment was classified as cottage industry, if the number of persons engaged in it on any day during the year was 9 or less. If the number was 10 or more and the unit was not registered under the Factories Act, the establishment was classified as a small scale establishment, whether it was power operated or not. However, if at the time of the inquiry such unit was not registered, it was included in the survey.[2]

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1 TRIVEDI A. B., *Kathiawar Economics*, Bombay, (1943), pp. 160-161.

2 Bureau of Economics and Statistics, *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. II, No. 1, January-March, (1962), p. 1

The survey covered 16 industries with 8,263 establishments in the district, of which 8,084 (97.80 per cent) were in cottage sector and 179 (2.20 per cent) in small scale sector. Statements V.5 and V.6 indicate number of establishments and persons employed in cottage and small scale industries respectively.

Cottage Industries

Industries important in the cottage sector in order of importance are leather working and tanning, *gur*-making, carpentry, bricks and tiles, blacksmithy, other potteries, weaving and metal works. Of these establishments, only 1,166 (14·43 per cent) were operated with power and 6,918 (85·57 per cent) without power. The cottage industries sector engaged 27,604 persons of whom 18,413 (66·70 per cent) were members of households and 9,191 (33·30 per cent) were outsiders giving an average of 3 persons per establishment.

The survey revealed that practically all the industries (98.3 per cent) were in the cottage sector and that only 14.4 per cent of them were operated with power. In the case of small scale sector out of 179 establishments only 26 establishments were operated with power. This facts indicate that the small scale sector even with the development schemes under the Five Year Plan could not make much headway in the district. It also indicates the urgent need for providing power to the industrial establishments in order to achieve economies of scale.

STATEMENT

The Number of Establishments and Number of Persons Employed in

Sl. No.	Name of the Industry	Total No. of establishments: Power	Non-Power	Total
1	2	3	4	5
1	Weaving	...	471	471
2.	Dyeing and printing	...	34	34
3.	*Jari* thread works	...	...	...
4.	Blacksmithy	...	614	614
5.	Metal works	...	457	457
6.	Carpentry	3	1,204	1,207
7.	Cane and bamboo products	..	321	321
8.	Bricks and tiles	...	651	651
9	Other potteries	.	499	499
10.	Leather working and tanning	..	1,861	1,861
11	Oil-pressing	232	37	269
12	*Gur*-making	825	799	1,624
13	Bee-keeping	.	...	...
14	Soap-making	..	6	6
15	Match-making	...	...	...
16.	Paddy-husking	106	...	106
	Total	1,166	6,918	8,084

Source:

Bureau of Economics and Statistics, *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, Vol II, No 1, January-March, (1962), Ahmedabad, p. 45.

V.5

Cottage and Small Scale Industries Selected for Survey, 1960-61

(INDUSTRY : COTTAGE)

No. of persons employed in the selected industries						Total No. of persons employed in the selected industries		
Household			Outsiders					
Power	Non-power	Total	Power	Non-power	Total	Power	Non-power	Total
6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
...	1,027	1,027	...	21	21	...	1,048	1,048
...	65	65	...	24	24	...	89	89
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	1,023	1,023	...	30	30	...	1,053	1,053
...	843	843	...	5	5	...	848	848
3	1,869	1,872	6	20	26	9	1,889	1,898
...	550	550	...	...	...	...	550	550
...	2,294	2,294	...	54	54	...	2,348	2,348
...	1,266	1,266	...	2	2	...	1,268	1,268
...	3,842	3,842	...	109	109	...	3,951	3,951
328	57	385	347	1	348	675	58	733
2,206	2,903	5,109	4,846	3,664	8,510	7,052	6,567	13,619
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	14	14	...	8	8	...	22	22
..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
123	...	123	54	...	54	177	...	177
2,660	15,753	18,413	5,253	3,938	9,191	7,913	19,691	27,604

Industries important in the small scale industries sector are *gur*-making and metal works. Of these establishments, only 26 (14·53 per cent) were operated with power and 153 (84·47 per cent) without power. The small scale industries sector engaged, 3,100 persons of whom 914 (29·48 per cent) were members of households and 2,186 or 70·52 per cent were outsiders giving an average of 17·31 persons per establishment.

STATEMENT V.6

The Number of Establishments and Number of Persons Employed in Cottage and Small Scale Industries Selected for Survey, 1960-61

(INDUSTRY : SMALL SCALE)

Sl. No.	Name of the Industry	No. of persons employed in the selected industries: Total No. of establishments			Household			Outsiders			Total No. of persons employed in the selected industries		
		Power	Non-power	Total	Power	Non-power	Total	Power	Non-power	Total	Power	Non-power	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.	Weaving	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
2.	Dyeing and printing ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
3.	*Jari* thread works	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	..	...	...
4.	Blacksmithy	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
5.	Metal works	...	1	1	...	9	9	...	2	2	...	11	11
6.	Carpentry	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
7.	Cane and bamboo products	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
8.	Bricks and tiles	..	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
9.	Other potteries	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
10.	Leather working and tanning	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
11.	Oil-pressing	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
12.	*Gur*-making	26	152	178	155	750	905	821	1,363	2,184	976	2,113	3,089
13.	Bee-keeping	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
14.	Soap-making	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
15.	Match-making	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
16.	Paddy-husking	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Total	26	153	179	155	759	914	821	1,365	2,186	976	2,124	3,100

Source :

Bureau of Economics and Statistics, *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. II, No. 1, January-March (1962), Ahmedabad p. 46.

The latest survey of the small scale industries in Gujarat was made by the Directorate of Industries, Gujarat State during the year 1965. The survey was conducted of small scale industrial units registered upto 31st March, 1965.

The results of the survey showed that Amreli was last but one in the districts of Gujarat in respect of industrial development. In fact it is one of the industrially backward districts in the State. The survey covered 10 reporting units which had only 0.35 per cent share in districtwise distribution It also showed that the number of workers per unit was 9, investment in machinery per unit was Rs. 16,518 and fixed capital per unit was Rs 24,098

There was not a single unit in existence prior to 1950. 30 per cent of the units were started during the First Five Year Plan period, 20 per cent during the Second Five Year Plan period and 50 per cent during the Third Five Year Plan These percentages show that the start was made during the First Plan, which got accelerated during the Third Plan period.

According to the factories registered under Factories Act the survey has revealed that only 20 per cent of units were registered under the Factories Act and 80 per cent were yet to be registered under that Act.

According to the ownership pattern of small scale industries, out of the 10 units covered, 6 units (60 per cent) were proprietary and 4 units (40 per cent) were under partnership No unit was established either under co-operative, private or public sector.

With regard to districtwise share of investment in plant and machinery the share of this district amounted to Rs. 165,000. Average investment in plants and machinery per unit was Rs. 16,500 and Rs. 1,700 per worker. Thus Amreli's individual share in the total investment in plants and machinery was less than 1 per cent.

From the point of view of districtwise employment these 10 units provided employment to 92 persons

In point of utilisation of technical assistance out of 10 units only one took technical assistance.

To sum up, the survey has shown that Amreli is one of the industrially backward districts of the State even though there are good natural resources in it. It is, therefore, necessary that an industrial potential survey of the district may be undertaken to identify specific industries based on local natural resources and demand-based industries.

INDUSTRIAL ESTATES

The object of the industrial estate is to disperse or decentralise industries by promoting industries in backward areas. It helps to encourge exploitation of local raw material and to develop local markets. Thus, it helps to relieve unemployment in the undeveloped areas. Such estate is, therefore, necessary to develop small scale-industries in towns and villages. It provides requisite facilities for the development of industries, mainly small industries whereby entrepreneurs with small capital can obtain built up sheds with the infra-structure facilities of roads, water supply, drainage, electric power supply, etc. In the Amreli district, the Government industrial estate is located near the Amreli railway station in an area of 9 913 hectares. The construction of the estate comprising 9 sheds each of size 30′ × 50′ which was commenced in the year 1962, was completed in 1966 at a total cost of Rs. 5 lakhs. Out of the 9 sheds, 7 sheds have been allotted to private industries including one to a co-operative institution.

The estate was formerly administered by Industries Officer; but recently it has been placed under the jurisdiction of the Gujarat Industrial Development Corporation.

Items manufactured in the estate are diesel oil-engines, sugar-cane crushers, mix-fertilizers Two sheds are still unoccupied. This shows that the scheme does not seem to have made much headway.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

The district of Amreli is not favourably placed in respect of industrial arts as other neighbouring districts of the Saurashtra peninsula have been. The Imperial Gazetteer of India has made interesting reference to few old-time industries and crafts of Amreli prant of former Baroda State. "The industries are very limited, being practically confined to the weaving of cotton cloth, embroidery on cheap silk and cotton stuffs in Dhari and Damnagar, a little silver work at Amreli, a little iron-work at Dhari and some pottery at Chalavi in Dhari taluka."[1]

The Gazetteer of Baroda State also provides substantial interesting information about several crafts such as embroidery, dyeing and calico printing, gold and silver ornaments and *bandhni*. Some of these crafts have survived to this day, while some have suffered extensively on account of competition of machine goods. These handicrafts play significant role in the life of the people of the district. The main handicrafts of the district at present are embroidery, hand-printing of textiles and bead work.

1. *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, Vol. V, Oxford, (1908), p. 317.

Embroidery—The history of art of embroidery could be traced to patronage extended to it by the Kathi rulers of various respective States which constitute the present district. The three clans of Kathis, *viz.*, Wala, Khuman and Khachar migrated into Saurashtra from Kutch in about the 14th Century. The heroic and handsome community of Kathis has played a very important part in the late medieval history of Saurashtra. The Kathi community patronized the best that was in the rural culture of the region they occupied. The Kathi school of embroidery in the district is represented by the Walas. The Walas were concentrated in Bagasara, Chadia, Ingorala, Chakla, Bara, Chavand and a few villages in the district.

The earliest specimens of Kathi workmanship for their background have invariably a black handspun cloth against which the coloured floss silk come out prominantly. "A preference for deep crimson optioned by a velvety violet is shown for the major portion of the work, while golden yellow, white, and green are sparingly but tastefully slashed for obtaining a balanced colour scheme. In the later phase, bluish grey cloth replaces orange, dark blue, and purple in silk fibres together with the taut and unshapely figural work indicate a decadence in taste and style. Soon after the commencement of twentieth century, Kathis seem to have discontinued to follow their hereditary tradition of embroidery."

"The governing stitch in Kathi embroidery is an elongate darn (*adiya-fatiya*). The impact of so unencumbered a stitch is remarkable in that the results are vibrant with vigour and vivacity. Few schools in embroidery achieve a distinction with such an economy of lines. The stitch structurally is worked out like the figure 8, either widely set or compactly placed. The chain stitch, and the interlacing stich (*bavaliya-no tanko*) are also met with in older specimens but rather sparingly and when the aim in view is to impart a special effect to the composition."[1]

The common articles prepared are *chaklas*, (square coverlet), *torans* (leafy boughs). *sakh-torans*, *pachhitpatis* and *suraj-sthapans*.

Another imposing piece is *bhitiya* (wall hanging) which combines a *pachhitpati* with three or five embroidered *chaklas*. The pattern incorporated in the preparation of articles fall into two categories, *viz.*, geometric and figurative. The geometric motifs are many a time set within square boxes. Their forms are queer. The figurative work, display scenes connected with marriage ceremonies of gods and goddesses such as Krishna and Rukshmani, Usha and Aniruddha, etc. Episodes from Ramayana and Puranic legends were also portrayed. The borders of Kathi work are usually composed of chequers, chevrons and lozenges. Sometimes floral

1. Department of Archaeology, Gujarat State, *The Embroidery and Bead Work of Kutch and Saurashtra*, Baroda, (1966), p. 18.

and bird motifs are also used. As Kathis are known to be devout worshippers of the Sun God, symbols representing sun-discks are used in the articles embroidered.

In addition to their own traditions of embroidery Kathis also patronized Mochi school of embroidery. The Mochi embroiders were employed mainly for preparing the embroidered articles for the dowry of Kathi brides by the Kathi nobility. Mochis made use of silk cloth of fine texture of different colours for the background. The fibres used for embroidery were of high quality and multi-coloured. The stiches popular with the Mochi embroiders were the darn and the chain. Motifs used in the embroidered articles include the multitude of *buttis* and floral forms, the peacocks as well as the parakeets so peculiar to Kutch work are also to be found here with certain local idioms. But that is not all. Their repertory was influenced and enriched by their surroundings and by the taste of their patrons. One finds the royal elephants, horses, hunters, *sakhis*, (maidens) engaged in churning curd, and the scenes inspired by the Puranas, such as *samudra manthan* or churning of the 'milky ocean' by gods and demons, but the fondness of Mochis for grouping larger number of motifs results in works that are dotted with too many details. Their execution too is less skilled compared to the Mochi work in Kutch.

The articles embroidered by Mochi school include those articles known in Kathi embroidery and which have been indicated previously. Besides mention must be made of, the handsome purses bordered with gold laces, *chaklas*. Some of the personal garments such as boy's headwear and sleeves of a blouse and fan. In some of the towns and villages such as Vadia, Babra, Kunkavav and Bagasara, and villages the ruling Rajput class and the affluent Mahajans extended patronage in the past. The needs of this class were different and included articles such as skirts, *saris* and trousers for children. Befitting the needs the technique remaining the same mannerism is altered to suit the needs.

In addition to Mochi school of embroidery another notable school in existence is Kanbi school. The Kanbis constitute the principal section of the present communities of the district. Both the two groups, *viz.*, Kadvas and Levas devote attention to embroidery. The Kadvas are predominantly found in the district For background they prefer yellow and deep orange and also white colour sometimes. Instead of silk, cheap cotton threads of gaudy colours are used. They make use of darn, chain and herring-bow stitches only. The motifs used by them are of birds, various kinds of flowers including *kewadaphul*, mango shoot (*ambadal*), a large variety of flower shoots and vegetal creepers, etc.

In appearance the Kadva work is at once tropical and effective from distance only. In addition to *chaklas*, Kadva Kanbi women prepare *torans*,

todaliyas and uleches for covering a pile of quilts on a wooden safe (*pataras*). They, however, take special delight in preparing the decor for their bullocks.

Besides the schools of embroidery mentioned above, some of the other schools of embroidery such as Ahir, Rabari, Charan and Bharwad have also been in vogue in the district. A special mention must, however, be made of the embroidery of the Siddis of Jafrabad and Janjira who have a tradition that carries strong reminiscences of their parental home, Africa. Their embroidery stands as a class apart.

CONCLUSIONS

Embroidery is a pastoral art in its inception. Various factors, however, have contributed to the development of this art in the district. Important among these is the patronage extended by rural-folk particularly Kathis—Valas in Bagasara, Charodia, Ingorala, Chakla, Babra, etc., as they love to wear garments which are exquisitely embroidered. Every item produced, be it a cap, *ghaghra*, blouses or *sarees* though endowed with finest workmanship is essentially meant for actual use affording continuous pleasure and pride to the owner and user.

The present survey was directed to study the organisation, employment, production and earnings of the artisans engaged in embroidery at Amreli and Bagasara. In order to conduct the survey, individual artisans were selected as samples and contacted personally to elicit factual data.

Broadly classified, two types of embroidery are practised in the district, *viz.* (i) hand embroidery[1] and (ii) machine embroidery.

Hand Embroidery—In the rural areas and to some extent in urban areas also, embroidery has a special importance as a feminine occupation as certain classes of women have to live secluded lives. In their cloistered life, embroidery offers a very welcome and relieving medium for self expression and occupation No precise enumeration of workers engaged in the craft is available. Moreover, embroidery is not practised as a whole-time occupation. Perhaps, it may not be possible. Too much strain on the eyes renders continuous embroidery work for long spells difficult. This also explains why the more intricate work is executed in the forenoon while the routine and relatively easier stitches are taken in the afternoons. Barring a few workers who put in about 5 to 6 hours a day, the majority of workers devote about 3 to 5 hours each day. Some workers surveyed at Amreli and Bagasara were on daily wages and some were on piece-wages. The daily

1 The different schools of embroidery existing in the district have been described in detail in the preceding paragraphs.

wage rates varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 10. The rates for the works executed on piece rate basis were as follows :

(1) *Sarees* Rs. 18 to Rs. 125, (2) Blouse-piece Rs. 5 to Rs. 10, (3) For Hakoba type embroidery, rates varied from Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 for 70 cms.

Embroidery is the exclusive domain of the women-folk, as it is a feminine art. The articles made by rich and middle class women are usually meant for personal use, sometimes for use by other family members, but seldom for sale. Some poor class women, however, make embroidery for sale, so as to supplement the family income, but the income so derived is negligible. An analysis of the data collected revealed that on an average, a female artisan puts in daily 3 to 5 hours of work in between her various other household chores. Some articles take pretty long time. The earnings of such women vary from Rs. 12 to Rs. 15 per month. The earnings also depend upon the demand and types of fashions in vogue.

The main items of production noticed at the time of survey were *sarees* skirts, blouse-pieces, petti-coats and table cloth, bed-sheets, etc. Besides, the designs and patterns of embroidery vary with garments and represent a rich repertoire aesthetically superb motifs. The motifs are based on fauna and flora of Gujarat. The floral and geometrical designs are also in use. The raw materials used in the craft are few and simple. Mainly these are the basic fabrics which may be voil, muslin, lawn, cambric, nylon, terrylene, linen, etc. Both powerlooms and mill fabrics are used. The cloth is mainly supplied by the user. The other materials comprise mill-made cotton or silk threads of different colours, Jari and *abhla* (mirror-pieces). As prices of the raw materials have gone up, the prices of the finished products have also shot up.

Machine Embroidery—The machine embroidery is of recent origin. In Amerli and Bagasara in a handful of establishments and a few rich houses, embroidery is done with the help of machines. The designs embroidered are simpler, as intricate and minute designs are not possible on the machines. Machine embroidery is normally undertaken with commercial motive. Products are comparatively cheaper because of quicker pace of production and large turn over. Roughly estimated, an individual can with help of machine produce about 25 to 30 square inches of embroidery of average design in works of 8 hours. The income realised by the persons engaged in machine-embroidery varies between Rs. 50 and Rs. 70 per month. It may, however, be noted that as tailoring and machine-embroidery are done in the same establishment, it is difficult to arrive at correct figures of income.

Following were the items of production noticed at the time of survey at Amreli and Bagasara, *viz.*, skirt borders, *sarees*, petti-coats, table-cloths, frocks, blouse-pieces, etc.

Dyeing and Calico Printing of Textiles

Dyeing and calico printing is one of the important traditional crafts pursued in the district. In past calico printing is reported to have enjoyed royal encouragement and patronage in the district *Gazetteer of Baroda State* makes a reference to "Dyeing and calico printing" and states that it existed in Damnagar taluka of Amreli. The importance of the craft has declined of late on account of competition from the organised sector. At present Bagasara has assumed importance so far as hand-printing of textile is concerned. *A Report on the Textile Hand Printing* at certain centres published by All India Handicrafts Board in 1959 has brought out importance of craft at Bagasara vividly. There were in all 19 units employing 70 persons at Bagasara of which 18 were proprietory establishments and one was partnership The method of printing adopted by these establishments was block printing The total production of printed cloth at Bagasara was 6.38 lakh yards. In the opinion of Report the Hand Printing of textile has reached point of stagnancy at Bagasara.

Organisation

The dyeing and printing industry at Amreli and Bagasara were surveyed in order to obtain factual data on various aspects of the industry. As dyeing and printing is run on household basis, it is very difficult to obtain correct data of the total number of establishments engaged in it. In all 5 establishments were selected for the purpose of survey. Out of the 5 establishments, 4 were run on proprietory basis, while the remaining one was a Government-owned peripatetic school. Except the peripatetic school and one unit at Bagasara, which adopted screen method, the remaining hand printing establishments had adopted block printing method.

The dyeing and printing industry provides employment to 15 persons approximately. Block printing employs the largest number of persons, as it forms primarily a household occupation The chief characteristic pattern of self-employment is predominant in block-printing units. The busy periods in some establishments range from 2 to 3 months, while in some, the period of employment of busy season ranges from 2 to 8 months.

Wages

The artisans work on salary as well as daily wage basis. Many establishments work entirely on printing job-work given by merchant-dealers and some institutions are engaged in producing Khadi cloth. It may be observed that the average earnings of the artisans range from Rs. 3 to Rs. 8 per day if and when they get some employment.

Raw Materials

(a) *Cloth*—The dyeing and printing units of Amreli and Bagasara use both powerloom and mill made fabric for printing. Sometimes, Khadi and handloom cloths are also printed on contract basis. Some establishments also use velvet and silk cloths for printing floor carpets.

(b) *Colours*—The dyes and colours commonly used by the printers at Amreli and Bagasara are alizarin, nepthal, indigosols, acid and basic colours. A wide range of chemicals like nitric acid, sulphuric acid, caustic soda, etc., are also used.

Technique—Block printing is a simple process of producing different designs and patterns on fabrics by pressing a wooden stamp dipped in the dye. It is thus an outward application of dye-stuff to the surface of fabric. Block printing requires simple tools like a padded wooden tables and carved wooden blocks. In two big concerns at Bagasara and Amreli, there are separate units for making screens. In screen printing a screen is the first requirement. The handcut or photographic screens are used like cyclostyled hand-rollers copying the script by stencil. For spreading fabric to be printed, wooden tables of required length and breadth slanting like a desk are used. A rubber-edged tool like a wooden roll known as squeegee is required for rolling the colour paste over the screen, besides other tools like spray pump and brush for clearing the screen, weights and measures, stove, buckets and other utensils for preparing dyes. Innumerable designs are in use in printed fabrics. A variety of geometrical designs are produced with dots and lines. The designs are styled as *navi-laher*, *chokdi laher*, single *laher* The designs are based on the flora and fauna of Gujarat. In flora, leaves of trees like mango, (*magnifera indica*), asopalav (*fonesia asoka*), etc., are printed alone or with branches in various combinations. Some designs incorporate fruits such as mangoes, grapes, etc. Among fauna, birds like parrot, sparrow and peacock, and among insects butterfly, and among animals, elephant, tiger, lion and horse are commonly used.

Finished Products

The printed fabrics include *sarees*, table-cloth, *chadars*, curtain-cloth, floor-carpet, etc. Barring the Jashwant Dyeing and Printing Works, which had obtained orders from Bombay for printing Khadi cloth, the remaining establishments cater to the domestic requirements of the people in the district.

The Department of Co-operation and Cottage Industries has been running a training school for Dyeing and Calico Printing at Amreli since 1956. This school is now being run by the District Panchayat. It has provided training to more than one hundred persons in the art of dyeing and printing.

BEAD WORK

Bead work is a living tradition and has managed to survive in the district although it is in a decadent state at present. The articles of bead work have become the integral part of every Kathi home in this and other districts of Saurashtra peninsula Truly speaking only one fundamental school of bead works, *i. e.*, Kathi school is in existence. Other schools or tendencies in bead work have developed rather lately and as a pale reflection of the Kathi, "Kathi workmanship which is in reality the Mochi craftsmanship in the earlier phase, is endowed with boldness and vigour, precision and judgment . it possesses all intrinsic qualities needed for the creation of a genuine work of art. And above all, a soft, cool placidity shines in almost all its depictions, whether abstract or representational a propensity especial to this aesthete community."[1]

In bead work two methods are employed in knitting, *viz.*, the mono-bead (*ekamoti-num gunthan*) and tri-bead system (*tran moti no thansiyo*). The patterns are worked by using coloured beads against the backdrop of white beads.

Bead works cover a very wide range of articles some of which are not only interesting but are vibrant with an art that is capable of stirring a desire to possess them The beaded articles of Kathi school are indicative of rural flavour. They symbolize the perfect unison of art and life. The articles of (1) room decor (2) knick-knacks and (3) ornamentations of domestic animals. In the district in addition to artisans the Bagasara Sanskrutik Vanita Co-operative Society Ltd, Bagasara prepares excellent articles of bead work. These are photo frames, coconut, fans, *chopat, endhoni,* dolls, *torans, chaklas* and *chandarvas.*

In addition to above mentioned crafts, mention must be made of *bandhani*, whose importance in the district has declined at present. The *bandhanis* of cheaper stuff and traditional designs are manufactured in the district at present.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL AND PLAN FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

The industrial development, it may be observed, is related to the availability of primary resources. The main occupation of the people in the district is agriculture and agricultural pursuits The most important products are groundnut, sugar-cane, and cotton The industries which, thrive at present in the district are based upon these primary resources. In other words, agro-industries have been hitherto the backbone of the industrial development in the district A broad and complete picture of

1. Department of Archaeology, Gujarat State, *The Embroidery and Bead Work of Kutch and Saurashtra*, Baroda, (1966), p. 73.

the existing industries in the district has been presented in the previous pages. Since the district became part of Bombay State in 1949, emphasis has been laid, time and again, on the speedy industrialisation. There has been some development in the period of First, Second and Third Five Year Plans. With the increase in tempo of planning, new resources are becoming available for industrialisation in a larger measure and facilities for their utilisation and for further development are being created in the district. An attempt is made to study the resources available for industrial development from agricultural raw materials, forest produce, minerals, salt and others. The section discusses the potentialities as are and would be available for development in future.

The district, it may be noted has agricultural and marine resources which offer good scope for the expansion of the existing industries. The industrial estate, it is hoped, will go a great way in promoting small industries.

Agro-based Industries

Sugar—Out of three sugar mills operating in Gujarat State, one is located at Kodinar in this district. A bright future exists for the establishment of one more sugar mills at Amreli taking into consideration the possibilities of sugar-cane crop which is grown on very large scale in the district. The sugar mills will also meet the demand of molasses in the State as a bye-product.

Solvent Extraction of Oilseeds and Cakes

Oil milling, solvent extraction, refining of oils, utilisation of bye-products in the manufacture of soap and fat splitting are the chain processes to which oil is amenable. Solvent extraction of oil-cakes to recover residual oil and separate de-oiled cakes is an important feature of this industry. There are in all 35 oil mills in the district. One solvent extraction unit is now being established at Amreli. In view of flourishing oil milling industry, there is scope for one more unit in the district. It may, however, be observed that oil-cakes, after extraction of oil in solvent plant have good market in foreign countries. Considerable scope, therefore, exists for the export of oil-cakes from the ports of the district.

Particle Boards from Groundnut Husk

At present, groundnut husk is being burnt out as fuel in the oil mills. It is possible to manufacture particle boards from groundnut husk. The Tropical Research Institute, London has conducted research and published material on this subject. The results of the research can be profitably used for such type of a project.

Cotton-seed Oil—*Recovery of oil from cotton-seed is of considerable importance Cotton-seed, in addition to being a source of oil is a valuable source of linters, manure, and cattle-feed.* The quality of oil is highly improved if the seeds are delinted and decorticated, before extraction. Delinting also makes available the linters, a valuable raw material for production of chemical cotton, gun-cotton, high grade paper and other cellulose products. As the district of Amreli is a cotton growing area, there is a good chance for establishing one unit manufacturing cotton-seed oil at Amreli. The unit may be of 60 tonnes capacity and would require investment of about Rs 25 lakhs It can provide employment to 70 to 80 persons.

ANCILLARY INDUSTRIES

Manufacture of oil engines and their spare parts and agricultural machinery, use of improved implements, machinery for reclamation of waste land, fuller utilisation of cultivable land and processing of farm produce are central to any scheme for stepping up of agricultural production.

The use of oil engines is on increase in the district. In 1967-68, there were 8,262 oil engines and 274 tractors in the district. A unit manufacturing oil engines, therefore, can be usefully established at Amreli. Moreover, spare parts like piston, gudgeon-pins, bushing and linters are required to be replaced often. Scope also exists for manufacturing automobile spare parts. Both these items can be manufactured in the same unit.

A unit for the manufacture of agricultural machinery both tractor and animal-drawn, like ploughs, disc tillers and harrows, ridgers, seed-drills, winnowers and threshers can also be established in the district.

INSECTICIDES AND PESTICIDES

The use of insecticides and pesticides has increased considerably of late Taking into consideration the local demand, one unit can be established in the district It may be pointed out that bentonite and gypsum needed to manufacture such chemicals are available in the district.

FERTILIZERS / MANURE MIXTURES

The use of various chemical fertilisers containing appropriate forms of nitrogen, phosphorous, and potassium can substantially increase the yield and quality of agricultural crops. For the purpose of intensive and improved cultivation, fertilisers and manure mixtures are very essential. The cultivators have begun to take full advantage of chemical fertilizers. The use of chemical fertilizers has increased from 20,000 metric tonnes in 1965-66 to 23,000 metric tonnes in 1966-67. The total requirements of fertilizers in the district can be worked out by

the Department of Agriculture and one unit manufacturing such fertilizers can be established in the district. However, it is interesting to note that steps are being taken to establish one such unit in the district on co-operative basis.

Cement Pipe—Possibilities exist in the district for manufacturing pipes, as there is heavy demand for them.

LIVE STOCK-BASED INDUSTRIES

The livestock in the district will provide resources for industrial development. The skins and hides obtained from the fallen and slaughtered animals can be used for the manufacture of a variety of products like footwear, saddlery, fancy articles, belts, pickers, etc. The total livestock population in the district in 1966 was 565,280 as compared to 536,962 in 1961. There is potential for etablishing the following industries based on the livestock.

Bone Meal—It is presumed that about 200 to 300 metric tonnes of bones can be available in the district. If these are collected from forests and other places, one bone crushing unit with a capacity of one metric tonne per day can be established in the district.

Tanning—The animal mortality rate is assumed at 10 per cent. On this basis, about 55,000 hides and skins can be made available. It is, therefore, necessary to set up flaying centres and organise a tannery on modern lines. Moreover, units manufacturing leather products on small scale basis can also be established.

Cattle Feed—The productivity of livestock is mainly dependent on the quantity and quality of foodstuffs, and, therefore, greater attention has to be given to the problem of fodder resources and cattle feed. The food available does not provide balanced cattle feed. As most of the basic materials are available in the district, a cattle feed plant in the district has good scope.

FOREST-BASED INDUSTRIES

The main objectives of the forest development programme should be to secure a long-range development of forest resources and to meet growing requirements of forest products in the immediate future through better techniques of exploitation. At present in the district, in all there are 15 saw-mills. Good scope, therefore, exists for the units manufacturing insulation and wooden furniture.

MINERAL-BASED INDUSTRIES

Mineral-based industries can best thrive on locally available industrial minerals.

Cement

The basic raw materials required for manufacturing cement, *viz.*, limestones, sand and gypsum are available in the Jafrabad, Rajula and Kodinar talukas in the district. Furthermore, on account of ports, transport facilities are also available in the district. Thus, taking into consideration these factors, possibilities exist for establishing one unit for manufacturing cement.

FIRE BRICKS

The sand available near Rajula in the district is useful for manufacturing fire-bricks.

SALT-BASED INDUSTRIES

Salt

The district occupies a unique position among salt-producing districts of Saurashtra peninsula. The production of marine salt in the district can be expanded by intensive methods at many places without any extra expenditure. On account of natural environment, climatic conditions and port facilities the expansion is feasible at Jafrabad, Bherai and Port Albert Victor in the district In the present salt works, no bye-product is manufactured by any of the companies except gypsum. Therefore, there is vast potential for utilisation of the bye-products from the salt manufacture.

Pure Salt

The marine salt produced in the Saurashtra peninsula has a high chemical purity, the sodium chloride content is not below 97.98 per cent on dry basis. The demand for chemically pure salt which is required for high grade caustic soda, sodium bicarbonate and dyestuff industries is on increase. The production of chemically pure salt can, therefore, be undertaken near about the existing salt works of Jafrabad and Port Albert Victor.

Bye-products of Salt and Bitterns

After recovery of salt, the bitterns left over contain chemicals like potassium chloride, magnesium chloride, etc. Bitterns are thus a valuable source for these chemicals, particularly potassium chloride which finds use as a fertiliser and in manufacture of potassium salts. The Central Salt and Marine Chemicals Research Institute, Bhavnagar has investigated a process to manufacture potassium chloride from bitterns. Some units in the district can, therefore, be established.

In addition to the industries listed above, possibilities exist for industries manufacturing hardware articles. Furthermore, some units manufacturing steel furniture, electrical accessories and plastic goods can also be established in the district.

LABOUR AND EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS

Labour Organisation

The trade union movement signifies a collective effort on the part of labourers to increase their bargaining power in the labour market and thereby improve their social and economic conditions. In the district, there is only one trade union, *viz.*, The Khand Udyog Kamdar Mandal, Kodinar which was registered on 15th November, 1959 under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. At the time of registration, in all there were 44 members. At the end of December 1967, the total number of members rose to 445. The trade union performs normal activities which include betterment of working conditions of workers and solving their grievances.

Employers' Organisations

For the development of industry and maintaining contacts with commercial and public institutions in and outside the country, associations of employers are formed by various industries. A brief description of some of the important associations of whom several large and small concerns of the district are members, is given below

The Bagasara Small Industries Association, Bagasara

This Association was established in 1966. It was formed primarily for the purpose of securing co-ordinated action in respect of the problems affecting factories. In 1967, it had a total membership of 15. Its aims and objects include proper guidance to its members about the facilities provided by the Government to the small scale industrial units, and doing all that is needful for promoting the development of industries.

The Amreli District Small Industries Association, Amreli

This Association was established in 1960. In 1967, it had a total membership of 52. The members comprise blacksmiths, carpenters, and miscellaneous workers. It gives proper guidance to its members in respect of the facilities available from the government. Its aims and objects include proper supply and distribution of raw materials and effective representation on behalf of its members to government for redressing their grievances. However, since last four years, it is dormant.

Shri Saurashtra Oil Mills Association, Jamnagar

The Association was started in 1948 for the oil mills of Saurashtra with a view, (1) to undertake all necessary activities for the promotion and development of oil factories related to oils and oilseeds, oil-cakes and meals and (2) to collect, preserve and circulate statistics and other information pertaining to the industry. In 1968, it had a membership of 305 out of whom 24 were from the Amreli district.

It is making unremitting efforts to solve the problems faced by the oil mills such as sales tax, railway traffic difficulties relating to movement of goods, groundnut levy order and similar other problems. Representations have been made at the Central and State Government level, whenever necessary.

The Indian Salt Manufacturers' Association, Bombay

In 1946 when this Association was started, there were only 7 salt-works on the west coast producing and despatching salt to Calcutta, annually to the extent of about 1 lakh tonnes. As there was no co-ordinated action among these salt-works, they could not develop to the extent possible. Besides, the import policy of the then Government was working to the detriment of the indigeneous industry.

Since its inception, the Association has actively co-operated with Government for (1) increasing production of salt (2) effecting salt shipments regularly to Calcutta with the active co-operation of the Director-General of Shipping (3) exploring new avenues for exporting the commodity and (4) making the country not only self-sufficient but also export-oriented in an increasing measure. In 1968, it had a membership of 17. Out of these 8 were from Amreli district.

WELFARE OF INDUSTRIAL LABOUR

Development of industries in the district depends much on the contented labour force. In this context the problem of labour welfare becomes urgent. In the former Baroda State areas, the labour welfare was regulated under (1) the Factories Act, 1913, (2) the Trade Unions Act, 1926, (3) the Trade Dispute Act, 1938, (4) the Workmen's Compensation Act and (5) the Maternity Benefit Act. In 1949, after merger, these areas received benefits of the labour policy followed by former Government of Bombay. In the Saurashtra area which merged in 1959, those which previously formed part of the Bhavnagar State, had got the benefits of the labour policy followed by that State. The former Bhavnagar State had adapted the following enactments on the lines of the British legislation which aimed to protect the interests of both employers and employees.

(1) The Workmen's Compensation Act,
(2) The Maternity Benefit Act, and
(3) The Trade Disputes Act.

The Darbar had also passed an Act for the purpose of licensing small and large factories with a view to safeguard the interests of labour by fixing hours of work in factories and providing necessary safeguards for preventing accidents.

Soon after integration, the Government of Saurashtra in its first policy announcement made it clear that it was wedded to a progressive labour policy similar to the one followed by other States in India. Uniform labour legislation for the whole of Saurashtra, of which the merged areas formed part, was enacted by adapting the important labour laws of the Bombay State. An adequate administrative machinery for implementation and enforcement of these measures was created. It consisted of the Labour Commissioner, two Assistant Labour Commissioners, (who were also appointed as Conciliation Officers), two Labour Officers and an Industrial Tribunal.

At present, the welfare of industrial labour is regulated by a number of legislative measures important among which is the Indian Factories Act, 1948.[1]

THE INDIAN FACTORIES ACT, 1948

History

The harmonious industrial relationship in factories and workshops depends on the humane treatment of the workers. For the regulation of conditions of labour, a beginning in the labour legislation was made as early as 1881 when the Factories Act, 1881 was passed. This Act was a simple piece of legislation primarily designed to protect children and to provide for some health and safety measures. The Act was amended several times to meet the changing conditions. In 1934, it was drastically amended to implement the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour in India and the conventions of the International Labour Organisation. Since 1937 the Act has been amended from time to time widening its scope and enlarging the rights of workers. However, inspite of a series of amendments the general framework of the Act had remained intact. Its working emphasized the need for complete revision with a view to strengthening its provisions relating to safety, health and welfare of

1. The other Acts such as Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Maternity Benefit Act, 1929, the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, which promoted the welfare of industrial labour have been described in Chapter XVII-Other Social Services.

workers. It was also felt desirable to extend its protective provisions to the large number of smaller industrial establishments, which were then not within the perview of the Act. In 1948, therefore, an entirely new Act was enacted.

The Act lays down the minimum provisions for safety, health and welfare of workers in factories.

The main provisions of the Act are as follows :

(i) The Act covers all industrial establishments employing 10 or more workers where power is used, or 20 or more workers, where power is not used. It removes the distinction between perennial and seasonal factories.

(ii) The Act, has made a number of provisions relating to health, safety and welfare of workers. It provides for cleanliness, ventilation, cooling of the air, sufficient lighting, supply of drinking water, separate laterines and urinals for males and females, artificial humidification, disposal of waste and effluents.

It further provides for fencing of machinery by substantial construction only specially trained adult male workers being permitted to handle the machinery in motion. No woman or child is allowed to clean, lubricate or adjust any part of the moving machinery. The other safety provisions relate to the casing of new machinery, devices for cutting off power, hoists, cranes and other lifting machineries, protection of eyes and precautions against dangerous fumes.

Provisions are made for adequate washing facilities, canteens in units employing 250 workers, creches in units employing 50 women and shelter or rest rooms in units employing 150 workers. The Act also requires the owner of any factory employing 500 or more workers to appoint labour welfare officer.

(iii) The minimum age for employment of young persons is fixed at 14 and the upper age limit for adolescents is raised from 17 to 18 years.

(iv) The hours of work have been fixed at 48 hours a week and 9 hours a day for adult workers. For persons below 18, the hours of work are fixed at 4½ hours a day. Employment of children and women between 7 P.M. and 6 A.M. is prohibited. For overtime work twice the normal rate of wage is to be paid

(v) As regards leave with wages, besides weekly holidays, every worker is entitled to enjoy leave with wages after one year's continuous service.

Thus, the Act makes adequate provisions for safety, health and welfare of the workers.

Wages

Wage is one of the ingredients of production. The labour should, therefore, get the benefits from the industrial development. The problem of wage determination cannot be considered in isolation from the large economic and social background obtaining in the district. A well conceived wage policy aims at (a) continual improvement in worker's living standards and (b) reasonable returns for the employers. Under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 the former Bombay Government had fixed and revised minimum rates of wages for certain scheduled employments. The Government of Gujarat has also fixed and revised minimum wages in respect of certain scheduled employments. The sub-jointed statement gives information about the minimum wages fixed for workers in the industries, *viz.*, rice, flour or *dal* mills, oil mills, cotton ginning and pressing, powerlooms, etc.

STATEMENT V.7

Rates of Minimum Wages in Amreli District fixed under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948

Employment	Area of operation	Labour: Skilled Rs Ps (A)	Skilled (B)	Semi-skilled Rs Ps	Un-skilled Rs. Ps
				Daily rates	
1. Oil mills	Amreli Municipality	3 15		2 80	2 50
	Rest of the district	3 00		2 70	2 40
		Skilled A	Skilled B	Monthly rates	
2. Printing presses	Amreli Municipality	120	110	95.00	80 00
	Rest of the district	110	100	85.00	75 00
3. Tanneries and Leather manufactory	Tanneries				
	Amreli Municipality	97 50		84.50	80.60
	Rest of the district	91 00		83 20	78 00
	Leather manufactory				
	Amreli Municipality	101 40		91.00	84.50
	Rest of the district	93 60		85.80	80.60
4. Powerloom		105 00		85 00	75.00
5. Salt pan Industry*		104 00 (Rs. 4 per day)		91 00 (Rs 3 50 per day)	71 50 (Rs. 2.75 per day)
6. Rice mill, flour mill or *dal* mill	Towns with a population of 35,000 and above	90 00		80.00	72.00
	Towns with a population from 10,000 to 34,999	85.00		75 00	67.00
	Rest of the district	80 00		70 00	62.00

STATEMENT V.7—*contd.*

		Skilled A	Skilled B	Semi-skilled A	Semi-skilled B	Un-skilled
		Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.	Rs. Ps.
7. Cotton ginning or cotton pressing manufactory ...	Amreli and Kodinar and the areas within the radius of three kilometers of their limits .	140.00	100.00	90.00	80.00	70.00
	Rest of the district (Piece rate for unshelling of cotton pods at employees' residence Rs. 1 50 per 20 kg. of cotton pods) ...	130.00	90.00	80.00	70.00	60.00

	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled
8. Stone breaking or stone crushing	Rs. 4 per day	Rs. 3 per day	Rs 2.40 per day

***Source* :** The Commissioner of Labour, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

* In case of inland salt works where the system of piece rate prevails workers are paid on salt manufactured at the end of manufacturing season per bengali maund of salt. These are for all the operations involved in the manufacture of salt. Wage rates are as follows:—

(i) Re. 0.25 if implements are provided by employer.

(ii) Re. 0.37 if cost of implements is borne by workers.

Textile Mills

The Balvant Silk Weaving Works at Amreli pays Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 per day as minimum wages to skilled workers and Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 to unskilled workers.

Other Industries

The standard of wages in other industries such as the Saurashtra Salt Works, Port Albert Victor, the Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works, Bherai and the Kathiawad Industries Ltd., Jafrabad is fairly high. In the Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works, the basic or minimum wage fixed in 1968 for a skilled worker was Rs. 104 and for an unskilled worker Rs 71.50, while in the Saurashtra Salt Works, it was Rs. 121 for a skilled worker and Rs 90 for an unskilled worker. The basic or minimum wage fixed for a skilled worker in the Kathiawad Industries during the same year was Rs. 3.80 per day and for an unskilled worker, it was Rs. 2.75 per day. In the sugar factory run by Shri Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd., Kodinar the basic or minimum wage for a highly skilled worker in 1968 varied from Rs. 135 to Rs. 370, while for a semi-skilled worker, it varied from Rs 65 to Rs. 80 and for an unskilled worker, the same varied from Rs. 60 to Rs. 65.

Medical Benefits

Some of the industries such as the Saurashtra Salt Works Private Ltd., and the Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works have provided first aid boxes. Shri Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd., runs a dispensary of its own.

Other Facilities

The canteen and refreshment rooms have been provided by large scale factories in the district such as Shri Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd, the Saurashtra Salt Works Private Ltd, and the Junagadh Salt and Allied Chemical Works.

STATEMENT V.2

Industries arranged in Descending Order of Number of Establishments, 1961

Sl. No. 1	Minor group 2	Description 3	Number of units 4	Percentage to total 5
1.	273	Making of textile garments including raincoats and headgear	647	15.54
2.	289	Manufacture of other wood and allied products	548	13.16
3.	369	Manufacture of sundry hardwares such as G I. pipe, wire net, bolt, screw, bucket and cutlery	415	9.97
4.	200	Production of rice, atta, flour, etc., by milling, dehusking and processing of crops and foodgrains	361	8.67
5.	311	Manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear	359	8.62
6.	235	Cotton weaving in handlooms ...	309	7.42
7.	393	Manufacture of jewellery, silverware and wares using gold and other precious metals	238	5.71
8.	209	Production of other food products such as sweetmeat and condiments, muri, murki, chira, khoi, cocoa, chocolate, toffee and lozenge	214	5.14
9.	350	Manufacture of earthenware and earthen pottery	214	5.14
10.	220	Manufacture of bidi	176	4.22
11.	207	Production of edible fats and oils (other than hydrogenated oil)	169	4.06
12.	310	Currying, tanning and finishing of hides and skins and preparation of finished leather	97	2.33
13.	281	Manufacture of wooden furniture and fixtures	54	1.30
14.	388	Repairing of bicycles and tricycles ...	54	1.30
15.	370	Manufacture and assembling of machinery (other than electrical, except textile machinery)	23	0.56
16.	214	Production of aerated and mineral water	22	0.52
17.	236	Manufacturing of khadi textile in handlooms	20	0.48
18.	365	Manufacture of brass and bell metal products	19	0.46

STATEMENT V.2—*contd.*

1	2	3	4	5
19.	280	Sawing and planing of wood	18	0.43
20.	392	Assembling and repairing of watches and clocks	15	0.36
21.	288	Manufacture of materials from cork, bamboo, cane, leaves and other allied products	13	0.32
22.	384	Repairing and servicing of motor vehicles	13	0 32
23.	314	Repairing of shoes and other leather footwear	12	0 29
24.	230	Cotton ginning, cleaning, pressing and baling	11	0.26
25.	238	Manufacture of cotton nets	11	0 26
26.	302	All other types of printing including lithography, engraving, etching, block making and other work connected with printing industry . ..	10	0.24
27.	336	Manufacture of soap and other washing and cleaning compounds ...	10	0 24
28.	368	Enamelling, galvanising, plating (including electroplating) polishing and welding of metal products	9	0.22
29	205	Production of bread, biscuits, cake and other bakery products	8	0 20
30.	345	Manufacture of stone images ...	7	0.17
31.	233	Cotton dyeing and bleaching ...	6	0 15
32.	239	Manufacture of cotton cordage, rope and twine	6	0 15
33.	242	Manufacture of lime	6	0.15
34.	363	Manufacture of structural steel products such as joist, rail, sheet, plate etc ...	6	0.15
35	367	Manufacture of metal products (other than iron, brass, bell metal and aluminium) such as tin can	6	0 15
		Total (1 to 35)	*4,106*	*98.66*
		Others	56	1.34
		Grand Total	**4.162**	**100,00**

Source :

Census of India 1961, Gujarat, Vol. V, Part IV-B, *Housing and Establishment Tables* (*E—Series Tables*), (1963).

STATEMENT V.8

Number of Factories and Workers for all Industries in 1956, 1960 and 1965

Sl. No.	Name of the Industry	1956						1960	
		Large scale		Small scale		All factories		Large scale	
		Factories	Workers	Factories	Workers	Factories	Workers	Factories	Workers
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Gins and presses ..	..	..	5	87	5	87	..	..
2.	Sugar factories and refineries ...	..	..	—	—	—	—	1	625
3.	Manufacture of miscellaneous food preparations	2	351	22	341	24	692	2	327
4.	Tobacco manufacture	..	..	1	25	1	25	—	—
5.	Spinning, weaving and finishing of textiles	..	..	2	75	2	75	2	160
6.	Vegetable and animal oils and fats (except edible oils) . .	..	..	2	18	2	18	1	54
7.	Manufacture of non-metallic mineral products (not elsewhere classified)	..	—	1	40	1	40	—	—
8.	Manufacture of machinery except electrical machinery ...	..	..	..	..	—	—	..	—
9.	Manufacture of motor vehicles and cycles	..	..	1	21	1	21	1	60
10.	Electric light and power ...	..	..	1	12	1	12	..	—
	Grand Total	2	351	35	619	37	970	7	1,266

Source :
Bureau of Economics and Statistics, *Location of Industries in Gujarat State*, Ahmedabad, (1956-60.)

STATEMENT V.3—*contd.*

Sl No	Name of the Industry	1960 Small scale Factories	1960 Small scale Workers	1960 All factories Factories	1960 All factories Workers	1965 Large scale Factories	1965 Large scale Workers	1965 Small scale Factories	1965 Small scale Workers	1965 All factories Factories	1965 All factories Workers
1	2	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1.	Gins and presses ...	8	105	8	105	..	..	5	87	5	87
2.	Sugar factories and refineries ..	.	..	1	625	1	603	—	..	1	603
3.	Manufacture of miscellaneous food preparations	31	512	33	839	3	1,206	33	529	36	1,735
4.	Tobacco manufacture ...	1	19	1	19	..	..	..	..	..	..
5.	Spinning, weaving and finishing of textiles		..	2	160	1	57	3	62	4	119
6.	Vegetable and animal oils and fats (except edible oils)	2	45	3	99	..	..	2	64	2	64
7.	Manufacture of non-metallic mineral products (not elsewhere classified)	1	30	1	30	..	..	1	33	1	33
8.	Manufacture of machinery except electrical machinery	1	9	1	9	..	..	..	..	..	..
9.	Manufacture of motor vehicles and cycles		..	1	60	..	..	2	66	2	66
10	Electric light and power	4	41	4	41	..	..	3	29	3	29
	Grand Total	48	761	55	1,987	5	1,866	49	870	54	2,736

ANNEXURE I

Study of the Working of the Sugar Factory at Kodinar

1. Genesis and Growth

The Amreli district has taken many strides in agricultural development; but the taluka of Kodinar tops other areas of the district on account of its fertile land, co-operative credit structure and scientific agriculture. A fertile strip of land known as Nagher or Lili Nagher passing through the taluka near the river Shigoda, 5 kms. from the sea is among the best soils of the district. As its soil is much conducive to sugar-cane cultivation, the Kodinar taluka has became a very important centre of sugar-cane plantation. The bulk of sugar-cane crop in the district is grown in this fertile strip of land. The co-operative credit which was initiated in the twenties during the Baroda regime has given the financial resources needed for cane plantation. Fertile soil, progressive farmers and co-operative credit have made it possible to establish a sugar factory at Kodinar called Shri Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandali Ltd. It is a shining example of what progressive farmers can achieve in a planned economy.

In Kodinar, sugar-cane plantation is done for over 50 years. Its entire production was formerly used for preparing *gur* which did not fetch attractive prices to sugar-cane cultivators. They, therefore, hit upon the idea of utilizing the cane production for manufacturing sugar With this view, they formed in 1956 a co-operative society called Shri Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandali Ltd.

The sugar factory was commissioned in 1958-59. It had many teething troubles in initial stages. It, however, soon got over these difficulties, thanks to the painstaking efforts of its Chairman Shri Ramsinhbhai Naranbhai Vala and the whole-hearted devotion and co-operation of the members. As a result, the factory has at present grown into one of the biggest sugar factories in India as far as the crushing of sugar-cane is concerned. In 1968-69, nearly three lakh metric tonnes of sugar-cane were crushed in the factory producing 2.88 lakh bags of sugar—the maximum since the establishment of the factory. It is a significant circumstance that the founder - members of the society numbering over 3,000 are all sugar-cane cultivators hailing from 67 villages of the Kodinar taluka (Amreli district) and 16 adjacent villages of Junagadh district. Of these 83 villages, 68 villages are within the radius of 25 kms. from Kodinar. The society has the authorised share capital of Rs 85 lakhs and the paid-up capital of Rs. 50 lakhs. The share capital provided by the Government is Rs. 20 lakhs. The total assests of the society amount to over Rs. 104 lakhs.

The progress of the factory during the decade between 1958-59 and 1968-69 was remarkable as can be seen from the following statement.

STATEMENT V.8

Comparative Figures of the Working Results of the Factory from 1958-59 to 1968-69

Particulars	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Actual crushing days	9	36	132	141	142	172	228	205	175	197	250
2 Total cane crushed (M T.)	3,927	39,418	148,163	158,331.616	165,310 688	207.882 162	269,265.287	243,697.836	204,466.895	244,551 736	293,063 506
3. Average daily crushing (M T)	436	703	1,122	1,122 94	1,164.96	1,192 60	1,179.19	1,187.76	1,315 61	1,355 79	1,277.19
4 Sugar produced (bags)	2,095	48,941	166.506	183 395	190,655	234,226	278,753	271,738	224,419	273,385	288,718
5. Recovery (per cent)	8 95	11 37	11 30	11 58	11 53	11.25	10 35	11.14	39.97	11 18	9 86

The daily supply of cane is about 1600 tonnes, which is transported to the factory by over 100 bullock-carts and 250 trucks and tractor trailors. The bye-products of the sugar industry are bagasse and molasses. The bagasse is consumed in the boilers for running the factory; while the molasses is used for producing spirit, which is a raw material for chemical industries. The distillery was erected at a cost of Rs 20 lakhs in 1966. The capital was made available by the factory from its working capital.

2. Distinguishing Features

The factory has got certain unique features. To begin with, the factory is not only paying reasonable price for the sugar-cane but it also encourages thrift for capital formation. After fixing the price of sugar-cane, the factory deducts Rs. 2/- per tonne as non-refundable deposit, which has aggregated to Rs. 65.23 lakhs by the end of June, 1969. Secondly, a provision is made for giving guidelines to farmer-members in cultivation of sugar-cane on scientific methods. For this purpose, the factory supplies improved seeds, manures, etc., for growing sugar-cane and promoting agro-industries. Thirdly, it has been decided to expand the present crushing capacity from 1,500 tonnes per day to 3,000 tonnes per day and then to 4,000 tonnes The capital for this expansion programme is raised by inducing finance from the co-operative banks within the State and from compulsory non-refundable deposits from member-growers. Fourthly, the co-operative movement in the taluka was initiated as far back as 1912 during the Baroda State regime. The co-operative spirit so initiated has helped develop the sugar factory. Fifthly, the cane output and the sugar content have gradually increased. Sixthly, the grower-members belong mostly to the community of the Karadia Rajputs and are, therefore, bound by blood relationship. The members of this community are also working in the factory. These two facts have led to harmonious relations between the member growers and the workers in the factory. Lastly, considerable credit must be given to Shri Ramsinhbhai Naranbhai Vala, Chairman of the Society who is connected with this factory and sugar cultivation for over two decades. Under his able stewardship the factory has steered clear of many obstacles in construction and running of the factory. As a result, the society stands fifth in the co-operative sector and first in respect of crushing in the whole of India

3. Impact of the Factory

A very rapid survey of the socio-economic effects of the establishment of the factory was made in January 1970 during collection of the data for preparing the District Gazetteer. The survey was conducted bearing in mind the principal indicators of socio-economic changes affecting primarily the infra-structure of development. The broad facts thrown up during the survey are highlighted below.

The establishment of the factory has almost transformed the economy of the area and greatly increased its potentialities. The socio-economic impact of the factory has been enormous. The value of land in this area which was about Rs. 1,000 per acre only a decade ago, has now shot upto about Rs. 9,000 per acre. There were only a few *kutcha* roads before the establishment of this factory. At present, 25 *pucca* roads spread over 98 kms., have been constructed with the co-operation of the shareholders involving a total expenditure of over Rs. 3 lakhs. Under a scheme for construction of roads, the factory pays 40 per cent of the cost, while the remainder is shared by the Central Government and the State Government in equal proportions.

In the pre-factory period, there were no transport facilities in this area and there were only 10 trucks and 3 jeep cars in the taluka. The number of vehicles of different types have now increased considerably. The trucks have increased four times and the jeep-cars about seventeen times. Tractors which were hardly seen in fields before have now become ubiquitous. There are now as many as 200 tractors in Kodinar taluka alone.

The factory employed 190 workers. In 1968-69 wages and salaries paid to them aggregated to Rs. 15 lakhs. The workers also get other benefits in the form of bonus equal to 20 per cent of their salary, contributory provident fund, gratuity, etc. The society runs its own Balmandir. It has constructed a spacious building for a high school. After the establishment of the factory, two high schools have been started at Kodinar. Many students have also taken to college education. To provide medical facilities to its employees, it runs a hospital under a qualified physician and surgeon.

It is a significant circumstance that the establishment of this factory has not created any labour problems and that the employer-employee relations have remained cordial. It has on the contrary helped improve the levels of living of the people of the taluka and the surrounding areas. The people in these areas now live a better life; they put on better clothes, live in *pucca* houses with modern facilities and spend more on personal comforts. A cinema house has also been constructed since 1968 to provide entertainment to the people.

The establishment of the sugar factory has thus radically changed the entire economy of Kodinar taluka and resulted in the social and economic uplift of the people in the district as a whole.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

A—Banking and Finance

Introduction

The oldest institution engaged in the disbursement of finance is that of the indigenous bankers who played a pivotal role in meeting the financial requirements of local inhabitants. Before the advent of the modern banking system, this institution was the only source of credit to which people looked in times of distress or social occasions. In the absence of any alternative means of securing finance, the indigenous money-lender played and still plays a very important role in the rural economy of the country. Though modern banking system was established very late in Amreli, merchants of means received deposits and advanced money to the Garasias and estate holders against the security of their lands.

In modern times finance is an important factor in the agro-industrial growth of an area, a broad idea of which can be had by reviewing the work of agencies providing credit to farmers, traders, industrialists and others in the district. These are indigenous money-lenders, co-operative credit societies and banks, joint stock banks and corporations formed by Government. Their function is two-fold, to mobilise the savings of the public and to canalise them into different productive activities. There are also the insurance companies whose main business is to collect the savings of the people in the form of premia and invest them in interest yielding securities or contribute to the capital requirements of industries by investing money in shares or debentures. Private and public limited companies also attract savings of the public in the form of share capital and deposits and utilise them in different productive activities. The State also plays a significant role in the financial sphere by floating loans and promoting small savings for financing developmental plans and other Governmental activities. Life Insurance Corporation and various other corporations, both in the public and private sectors have been playing an important part in developing the financial structure of the State and the country. The part played by each of these agencies will be reviewed in the pages that follow

Money-lenders

Of all the agencies providing finance to the various sectors of the economy, the role of the money-lenders is the most controversial. It cannot be denied that it is the oldest agency engaged in the disbursement of finance mainly to the agricultural classes. Before the development of the modern banking system, this agency of money-lenders held almost monopolistic sway over the unorganised money market. The role played by

money-lenders and indigenous bankers in this district is briefly reviewed below.

About the money-lenders in this district, the old *Kathiawar Gazetteer* (1884) observes, "The principal money-lenders are Vanias and Lohanas; a few Mehmans in Kodinar also carry on this business. Among merchants, the usual rate of interest is one per cent per month, and among the people from one and a half per cent to two per cent per month, *Kothli Chhodaman** or fee for opening the purse is taken by some Vanias and Lohanas, but not by the more respectable bankers. *Manoti*, a charge of one per cent per month besides the stipulated interest, is taken by all money-lenders."1

It could thus be seen that even before about 90 years, the rate of interest charged from the people was very high, *i.e.*, from 18 to 24 per cent. Besides exorbitant interest this agency was also prone to other exactions like *Kothali Chhodaman* and *Manoti* which hit the poor agriculturists hard. Despite such exactions the agriculturists had to maintain good relations with money-lenders, as they could not do without them in the absence of any other credit agency. A security for loan advanced was then very seldom required. A *sahukar* was treated as *Ma-bap* to the cultivating classes. The village was also more organised and the *sahukar* was not permitted to drive a hard bargain. Village elders wielded great influence among the village people and the social restraint exercised by them was by and large beneficial to the people in villages. The seasons were good, the produce ample and steady and the money-lenders were always willing to lend. As observed in the report of the *Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee*, "In Amreli district, there was even competition among the *sahukars* to lend. The *sahukar* would go to a village with a bag of money and would persuade farmers to accept small loans. He would show when and how to spend, to buy one more piece of land, purchase one more bullock or cow and so forth. In the Amreli taluka, some of the *sahukars* even engaged brokers to bring them new and rich clients. The presence of good farmer and borrower created a great furore in the market and when an account was opened, the borrower was given a *paghadi*."2

The former Baroda State fully realised the necessity of good relations between the farmers and *sahukars*. It, therefore, issued a Notification in 1899 permitting the *sahukars* to lend money to the farmers at nine per cent interest with the condition that Government would help them to realise the sum so advanced by revenue recovery process in case the borrower failed to repay the amount within a reasonable period.

* Fee charged by money-lender for opening an account

1. CAMPBELL J. M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, (1884), p. 361

2. *Report of the Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee*, (1929-30), p. 61.

The situation, however, deteriorated in 1899, the year of great famine, and subsequent scarcity years Due to the successive failure of crops, the farmer as a class was unable to repay his past debt to the *sahukars*. This strained his relations with money-lenders and created distrust. Except for the best of cultivators, credit on personal security was seldom accepted by money-lenders and ample security was demanded so as to minimise the risk of agricultural advances. The report further states that due to the successive lean years, the money-lenders in Amreli Prant were hard hit. They therefore, became more cautious in their lending. As a result, in the Amreli Prant, the system of conditional sales increased. The *sahukar's* distrust of farmers was also demonstrated in his refusal to allow the farmers to cultivate the land mortgaged

The Baroda State does not seem to have taken any positive measures to restrict the activities of unscrupulous money-lenders In fact, the Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee, which was appointed by the State Government in September, 1929 to inquire into the banking conditions and to make recommendations for their improvement and expansion, was against such legislative measures to be adopted by the State to regulate the activities. However, the Baroda Government passed the Baroda Interest Act, 1891 under which no court could allow more than 12 per cent interest (*dam dupat* rule) and permitted the recovery of the interest only to the extent of the principal amount due from the borrower. Thus prior to Independence, no concrete steps seem to have been taken to check the malpractices adopted by the money-lenders.

The Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946 was extended to this district with effect from 1950. Upto 1957, the Act was implemented through the Revenue Department and then by the Co-operative Department. In 1959, the district was reorganised by the Government of Bombay and certain areas of Junagadh, Bhavnagar and Rajkot districts were transferred to the Amreli district. In the transferred territories from the Saurashtra region, the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946 was not extended till 1960. After the formation of Gujarat State from May, 1960 the Act was made applicable to the entire State including the Saurashtra region. The broad provisions of the Act are : licensing and registration of money-lenders, maintenance of accounts in the prescribed forms, furnishing of receipts and statement of accounts to debtors and fixation of rates of interest on secured and unsecured loans Under the scheme of regulated credit, a money-lender is expected to provide credit. The maximum rate of interest chargeable by money-lenders is fixed at 12 per cent on secured loans and 15 per cent on unsecured loans. Most of the loans for agricultural purposes being unsecured, agriculturists usually pay maximum interest upto 15 per cent. Due to the strict enforcement of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, money-lenders are not permitted to

take possession of land in satisfaction of their outstanding dues from the agriculturists without Collector's permission Under the Five Year Plans, agriculturists are provided credit through the agencies of Government and co-operative societies for purchase of seeds, fertilisers, implements, oil-engines, etc. As a result, agricultural debt has also increased *pari pasu* with the heavy investments in land

The following statement shows the number of licensed money-lenders and their loan transactions in the district —

Operations of Money-lenders, 1964 to 1968

Year	No of licences issued for the first time	No of licences renewed	No of money-lenders holding valid licences	Loans to traders Rs	Loans to non-traders: Agriculturists Rs.	Loans to non-traders: Other non-traders Rs.	Total loans advanced Rs.
1-8-63 to 31-12-64	11	158	169	576,716	909,823		1,486,539
1965	12	116	128	378,866	1,224,903		1,603,769
1966	17	115	132	264,124	1,733,568		1,997,692
1967	12	121	133	486,400	990,303		1,476,703
1968	10	129	139	395,035	1,594,279		1,989,314

Source

The District Registrar, Money-lenders, Rajkot.

It appears that there is a gradual reduction in the number of money-lenders holding valid licences This may be due to the fact that some *sahukars* might have stopped money-lending business and have shifted their activities to other professions and that some may have found it difficult to carry on business because of the development of alternative credit from Government and co-operative societies. It is also evident that the quantum of loans to traders has also shown a decline, but the volume of loans to agriculturists has increased from Rs. 9.09 lakhs in 1963-64 to Rs. 16 lakhs in 1968 This increase may be attributed to the easy availability of credit for productive and unproductive purposes from money-lenders. This further shows that despite availability of enormous credit from Government and co-operative agencies, the money-lender remains popular with cultivators

AGRICULTURAL INDEBTEDNESS

The problem of agrarian debt is as old as agriculture. Agriculturists as a class are poor and resort to reckless borrowing for productive as well as unproductive purposes. The former Baroda State of which the Amreli district formed part was no exception to this general rule and that most of the debts incurred were for unproductive purposes.1

1 *Report of the Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee*, (1929-30), p. 111.

Adequate attention was not paid by the former Baroda State to the appalling problem of indebtedness of farmers in the initial stages, but the famine of 1899 brought the problem to the fore. The Maharaja ordered an immediate inquiry into the problem to find out the nature, causes and the magnitude of indebtedness of cultivators in the State and to recommend measures for scaling it down. Under this scheme, every farmer was required to register his debt and every *sahukar* his loans to the cultivators failing which he was liable to penalty. Thus, the first estimates of agricultural indebtedness in the State calculated in 1901 revealed that out of 253,734 *khatedars* in the entire State, 157,722 or 60 per cent were indebted to the extent of Rs. 75,717,190 or Rs. 160 per head. For the Amreli Prant, the average indebtedness of the *khatedars* was to the extent of Rs 313 The interesting fact was that the subsequent estimates of debt made in the years 1912, 1918 and 1925 showed that the total indebtedness of the agriculturists in the Baroda State was of the order of about Rs. 8 crores. Such large scale indebtedness in the State was attributed to the following factors, (i) uneconomic holdings of land, (ii) expensive social customs like marriage and deaths necessitating extensive borrowings, (iii) drinking habits and (iv) recurrent failure of crops, famines, cattle diseases, etc. The different remedies suggested for liquidation of the huge debt were : (1) liquidation of debts by means of conciliation proceedings, (2) passing of legislation similar to the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act or the Punjab Land Alienation Act and (3) gradual liquidation through land mortgage banks or other co-operative societies. However, in its report submitted in 1929-30, the Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee considered the last measure, *i e*, the liquidation of the debt of the agriculturists in the State through co-operative societies as the best method.

Despite this, as a measure of relief, the Baroda Government enacted the Agriculturist Debt Regulation Act in 1935 and the Debt Conciliation Act, in 1936 The former was passed with a view to providing relief to small holders and was intended to be a purely temporary measure. The courts were empowered to examine the history of the debt, reopen transactions and fix on equitable grounds the amount that should be paid and to decree repayment in easy instalments. However, the relief under the Act was available to the small agriculturists only, *i.e.*, to those whose income from land was less than Rs. 750 per annum. The primary object of the latter enactment was to reduce the burden of agricultural indebtedness through conciliation. This act was applied to Dhari and Kodinar talukas in 1938 and to Amreli taluka and Khambha mahal in 1939

This position continued till Independence. In 1949, with the merger of Baroda State into the Bombay State, the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1939, was made applicable to Amreli district with effect from August, 1949. The main provisions of the Act are: (1) to help agriculturists get back the lands which they had sold to the money-lenders at the

time of borrowing and (2) to relieve the agriculturists from the burden of their debts by properly adjusting debts and giving the facility of easy instalments for their repayment. The Government of Saurashtra also enacted similar legislation called "the Saurashtra Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act" in 1954. This Act was in force in the areas transferred to the Amreli district from the adjoining Rajkot, Bhavnagar and Junagadh districts on the reorganisation of the district in 1959. Between 1951 and 1958 15,281 applications of cultivator-debtors involving a sum of Rs. 7,446,976 were disposed of under the Act and the total amount by which the debts were reduced was Rs. 1,628,958. Thereafter such applications are not received in the civil courts in the district.

The Government has realised the fact that the best solution to the problem of agricultural indebtedness lies in sound economic condition of the peasantry. To achieve this aim, it is necessary that the farmer should get the handsome return from his occupation, that his exploitation by the money-lenders should cease and that alternative agencies should be set-up to provide necessary finance at reasonable rates of interest. There is urgent need for strict regulation of money-lending to farmers. Moreover, with the ever expanding co-operative activities better prices of agricultural commodities and diversion of adequate funds from the deposits of commercial banks, the objective of regulating money-lending may be expected to be achieved.

Joint Stock Banks

Joint stock banks—scheduled and non-scheduled—play an important part in the development of trade, commerce and industry. In fact they constitute one of the most important sources of the organised capital market for providing finance for the development of these sectors of economy. According to the *Baroda State Gazetteer*, "Prior to 1875, all the banking in the State was carried on by shroffs. State funds were deposited with four prominent *sahukars* of Baroda until the inauguration of the State treasuries in 1876 made the *sahukar* unnecessary. In 1884 the Baroda *Pedhi* was started with a capital of Rs. 3.00 lakhs divided into 600 shares of Rs. 500 each. Half of these shares were taken up by the Government and the other half by the public. The *Pedhi* (bank) was directed by a Board of five Directors, consisting of a President and two Directors nominated by Government and two others by the shareholders. It was authorised to lend money on the usual banking principles. In 1908, with the inauguration of the Bank of Baroda Ltd., the *Pedhi*, being no longer required went into voluntary liquidation. It had served a very useful purpose and came to an honourable end, the shareholders received about 30 per cent over and above their share capital."[1]

1 Clarke A. B. and Desai G. H., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, (1923), Part I, p. 333.

The present policies of Government in respect of bank-lending in the wake of nationalisation of 14 major banks is being formulated by Government. The imposition of social controls by Government followed by a more radical approach as nationalisation is described hereinafter in this section.

In 1968, there were twenty-one branches of joint stock banks including two pay offices at Chital and Jafrabad of the State Bank of Saurashtra. All of them have their head offices registered outside the district. It is significant to note that the Bank of Baroda which established a branch at Amreli in 1920 was the first commercial bank to start banking business in the district. The former Vadia State had also established its own bank at Vadia in 1936. This bank functioned more or less as a department of the State till the promulgation of the 'Saurashtra State Banks Amalgamation Ordinance' in 1950 This bank was taken over as a branch of the State Bank of Saurashtra in July, 1950. Yet another bank to start banking business in the district before Independence was the Dena Bank which established a branch at Amreli in 1944. All other banks have established their branches after Independence.

The following statement shows expansion of commercial banking in the district :—

Sl No	Name of the Bank	Location	Year of opening
1	Bank of Baroda	Amreli	1920
2	Dena Bank .	Amreli	1944
3.	State Bank of Saurashtra	Vadia	1950(1936)
4.	,, ,, ,,	Bagasara	1953
5.	,, ,, ,, .	Rajula	1954
6.	,, ,, ,, ...	Lathi	1954
7	,, ,, , .	Jafrabad	1955
8	,, ,, ,,	Babra	1955
9	,, ,, ,, . .	Lilia Mota	1955
10	,, ,, ,, ...	Dungar	1956
11	Punjab National Bank	Amreli	1956
12	State Bank of Saurashtra	Chital	1956
13	State Bank of India . ..	Amreli	1958
14	Dena Bank	Damnagar	1958
15	State Bank of Saurashtra	Chalala	1960
16	,, ,, ,, ...	Damnagar	1961
17	,, ,, ,, . ..	Kodinar	1961
18.	Dena Bank	Dhari	1963
19.	State Bank of Saurashtra	Dhari	1963
20.	Dena Bank	Bagasara	1965
21.	State Bank of Saurashtra	Khambha	1967

The above statistics disclose a progressive expansion of commercial banking in the district. There have been three stages of development. Before 1950, there were only branches of the Bank of Baroda and the Dena Bank in the Amreli town itself and that no banking facilities were available in other talukas or mahals. In the second stage, out of 21 banks, as many as 13 banks were established during the period from 1950 to 1960. With the formation of separate State of Gujarat, the third stage was reached when 6 banks were established. Further, among the banks which have established their branches in the district, the State Bank of Saurashtra tops the list with 14 branches, followed by Dena Bank with 4 branches and one branch each of the Bank of Baroda, State Bank of India and the Punjab National Bank.

Deposits—Due to the good cash crops of groundnut and sugar-cane in the district, there are good chances of mobilising deposits from the cultivators and others The Statement VI 1 shows the amount of deposits collected by these banks during 1965 and 1968

STATEMENT VI.1

Deposits of Joint Stock Banks, 1965 and 1968 (as on 31st December)

(IN THOUSAND RUPEES)

Sl. No	Particulars	Year	Fixed Deposits		Current Deposits		Savings Deposits		Other Deposits		Total Deposits	
			No of accounts	Amount Rs.	No. of accounts	Amount Rs	No. of accounts	Amount Rs.	No of accounts	Amount Rs.	No. of accounts	Amount Rs.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.	Manufacturing concerns	1965	2	571	43	439		..	..	..	45	1,010
		1968	.		61	446	..	..	.	..	61	446
2.	Trading concerns	1965	12	110	163	290	7	15	4	50	186	465
		1968	25	250	245	729	15	40	..	..	285	1,019
3.	Banking companies	1965		..	23	1,644	..	.	..	..	23	1,644
		1968	.		25	2,537	..	..	..	.	25	2,537
4.	Business	1965	5	21	939	1,690	18	86	24	5	986	1,802
		1968	10	60	963	2,877	52	72	22	5	1,047	3,014
5.	Public institutions and trusts	1965	24	398	33	323	67	192	..	..	124	913
		1968	33	538	35	468	99	288	..	..	167	1,294
6.	Personal	1965	3,073	14,999	184	388	9,342	7,167	270	321	12,869	22,875
		1968	4,008	19,596	198	304	13,568	9,972	219	148	17,993	30,020
7.	Others	1965	40	174	18	129	676	627	12	65	746	995
		1968	183	937	18	231	941	656	198	243	1,340	2,067
	Total	**1965**	**3,156**	**16,273**	**1,403**	**4,903**	**10,110**	**8,087**	**310**	**441**	**14,979**	**2 9,704**
		1968	**4,259**	**21,381**	**1,545**	**7,592**	**14,675**	**11,028**	**439**	**396**	**20,918**	**40,397**

Source :
Compiled from the information furnished by the Joint Stock Banks in Amreli District.

The foregoing statement reveals a considerable increase in the number of depositors as also in the amount of deposits collected in 1968 as compared to 1965. It is also observed that the largest amount was deposited by individual depositors, which amounted to 77.00 per cent in 1965 and 74·31 per cent in 1968. Preponderance of fixed deposits over all other types of deposits is clearly visible in both the years. Next in importance is the savings account which contributed 27.23 per cent in 1965 and 28.00 per cent of the total deposits in 1968. This shows that the people are increasingly becoming bank-conscious

STATEMENT VI.2

Advances of Scheduled Banks, According to Purpose

(IN THOUSAND RUPEES)

	Year 1965 (ending 31st December, '65)			Year 1968 (ending 31st December, '68)		
	Number of accounts	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances	Number of accounts	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances
I. Industry	28	1,834	28 58	33	4,755	51 45
II. Commerce	94	2,633	41.03	53	2,099	22 71
III. Agricultural		..	.	12	82	0 89
IV Personal and professional	101	1,896	29 54	96	2,176	23 54
V. All others	6	55	0 85	18	130	1 41
Total	**229**	**6,418**	**100 00**	**212**	**9,242**	**100 00**

From the foregoing statistics, it will appear that out of total deposits of Rs 4.03 crores only the amount of Rs 0 92 crores has been advanced during 1968 in the district. This shows that the major portion of the deposits mobilised in the district is advanced in areas outside the district. This may particularly be due to the comparative industrial backwardness of the district.

Further the statement discloses that 51 45 per cent of the advances are made to industry in 1968 as against 28.58 per cent in 1965 This indicates a progressive trend towards industrialisation and greater investment in the industry sector. For agricultural operations it is remarkable that 0·89 per cent has been advanced as against no advances in 1965. Advances in trade and commerce have fallen from 41 03 per cent in 1965 to 22 71 per cent in 1968, on account of restrictions imposed by Government on bank advances on cash crops like groundnut.

Banks and Social Control—The advances of commercial banks in the country have hitherto been mainly utilised by the two sectors-commerce and industries. In order to achieve a balanced growth of country's economy, the Government of India decided to impose effective social control over these banks with a view to channelling the huge resources towards development of agriculture, cottage and small scale industries and exports. To bring about the necessary changes in the lending pattern by banks, a National Credit Council with the Deputy Prime Minister as Chairman and the Governor of the Reserve Bank of India as the Vice-Chairman was formed in December 1967 to advise the Government in the task of allocating credit among the different sectors in conformity with the objectives of planning and considerations of national economic policy.

The main functions of the Council were (i) to assess the demand for bank credit from various sectors of the economy, (ii) to determine priorities for the grant of loans and advances or for investment, having regard to the availability of resources and requirements of the priority sectors, in particular, agriculture, small scale industries and exports, (iii) to co-ordinate lending and investment policies as between commercial and co-operative banks and specialised agencies to ensure the optimum and efficient use of the overall resources, and (iv) to consider other allied issues as may be referred to it by the Chairman or the Vice-Chairman It was also laid down that the Council may invite such persons as it may consider necessary to participate in its deliberations.

The membership of the Council was not to exceed twenty five and included three permanent members, *viz*., the Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission, the Secretary, Ministry of Finance and the Chairman, Agricultural Refinance Corporation The remaining twenty members were to be appointed from the representatives of commercial and co-operative banks, large, medium and small scale industries, agriculture, trade including export trade and professional group of economists. It was hoped that the deliberations of the Council would result in broad agreements being reached on matters relating to credit policy and that the advice of the Council would help the Government, the Reserve Bank and the banking system as a whole in discharging their respective responsibilities in this field.

The first and the last meeting of the Council was held in March, 1968 in Bombay presided over by the Deputy Prime Minister It decided to appoint a Standing Committee consisting of the Governor of the Reserve Bank of India as Chairman, besides eight others such as Chairman of the State Bank, other bankers, industrialists and economists This committee was asked to study specific issues in regard to credit planning and formulation of concrete proposals for consideration of the Council Necessary legislation called the Banking Laws (Amendment) Bill, 1967 has been enacted and enforced to give effect to the policy of social control of banks.

In pursuance of the furtherance of measures of social control over commercial banks, it was decided to appoint a Banking Commission to go into the entire question of the working of Commercial Banks and to make recommendations for their development. The Banking Commission was accordingly appointed in January, 1969 under the Chairmanship of Mr. R. G. Saraiya, eminent economist and co-operator. The terms of reference of the Commission were. (1) to inquire into the existing structure of the commercial banking system, having particular regard to size, distribution, dispersion and area of operation and to make recommendations for improving the structure, (2) to make recommendations for expanding the geographical and functional coverage of the commercial banking structure, (3) to examine the cost and capital structure and review the adequacy of available surplus and reserves, having regard to the developmental needs of the banking system and make recommendations in the light of the findings. The Commission was also required to make recommendations for building up of professional cadre of bank personnel, co-ordinated development of commercial and co-operative banks and the role of non-banking financing intermediaries including the indigeneous banking agencies in the emerging banking structure.

NATIONALISATION

Before the social control imposed by Government over the banks by its legislation in 1968 could make its impact on the pattern of advances of commercial banks the Government took the radical step of nationalisation of 14 major banks in the country, first by an Ordinance in the month of July 1969 and later by introducing necessary legislation in Parliament entitled 'The Banking Companies (Acquisition and Transfer of undertakings) Act, 1969' so as to serve better the needs of development of the economy in confirmity with national policy and objectives. to replace the Ordinance. Under this measure, commercial banking institutions having aggregate deposits of not less than Rs. 50 crores were taken over by Government. The banking companies covered by the legislation are the Central Bank of India Ltd., the Punjab National Bank Ltd., the Bank of India Ltd., the Bank of Baroda Ltd., the United Commercial Bank Ltd., the United Bank of India Ltd., the Allahabad Bank Ltd., the Dena Bank Ltd., the Indian Bank Ltd., the Canara Bank Ltd., the Union Bank of India Ltd., the Syndicate Bank Ltd., the Bank of Maharashtra Ltd., and the Indian Overseas Bank Ltd. The existing nomenclatures of these Banks have been retained except the word 'Limited' as the ownership of the Banks now vests in the Government of India.

Co-operative Societies and Banks

Amreli, formerly a part of the erstwhile Baroda State, had the benefit of the progressive policy pursued by the former ruler,

Shri Sayaji Rao III of Baroda. The Co-operative Societies Act, 1904 was passed by the State soon after the similar enactment in British India. Societies began to be established under this Act in the district in 1908-09 and lead was taken by Aranej, Devalpur and Chuvan-ni-khan villages. The number of agricultural credit societies rose from 23 in 1908-09 to 79 in 1918-19. To encourage the growth of the movement further in the State a separate Officer in charge of Co-operative Department was appointed in 1919 However, on account of non-availability of sufficient funds, the movement did not expand much. On the eve of Independence there were only 112 co-operative societies.

After Independence, Government took systematic steps to strengthen the co-operative movement It realised that agriculturists as a class being poor, co-operative movement, which was primarily meant for them, could not make substantial progress unless sufficient funds were earmarked for its growth It was with this end in view that sizeable funds were provided in the Five Year Plans. The sphere of the movement was also widened and credit and non-credit activities were brought within its fold. Propaganda was also carried out on a large scale to popularise the movement. As a result the number of co-operative societies increased rapidly. From 112 societies in 1947, the district had 555 societies of different types in 1967-68 covering almost all the villages. The account of the co-operative movement in the district will be incomplete without the reference to phenomenal progress achieved by the movement in the Kodinar taluka of the district. In the sphere of co-operation, this taluka is one of the most advanced not only within the periphery of the district but in the entire State of Gujarat. History of the development of the co-operative movement ever since its beginning in this taluka is both inspiring as well as interesting. The first co-operative society was registered in Jagatiya village of this taluka. The taluka had its own central financing agency, *viz.*, the Kodinar Taluka Co-operative Banking Union. Its co-operative sugar factory, *i e.*, *Shree Bileshwar Khand Udyog Sahakari Mandali* has earned an all India reputation. Of the 555 co-operative societies in the district in 1967-68, 87 were in Kodinar taluka only

The present position of the different types of co-operative societies in the district is reviewed below .

Agricultural Credit Societies—They have a pride of place in the co-operative structure. In fact the co-operative movement was started primarily for solving the problem of rural finance for raising crops in fields by providing necessary funds to the cultivators. Of the 555 co-operative societies in the district in 1967-68, 386 or 69.55 per cent were agricultural credit societies. Because of traditional reluctance of the commercial banks to make advances to the agricultural sector and restrictions imposed by legislation on the activities of the money-lenders, agricultural credit societies

have been called upon to play a vital role in the expansion of agriculture. To achieve this end, as also to revitalise the stagnant growth of agricultural credit societies, service co-operatives have been introduced since 1959 which, besides disbursing credit, also undertake the distribution of seeds and fertilisers, supply tools and implements and also run consumer stores. Out of a total of 386 agricultural credit societies in the district in 1967-68, 151 were service co-operatives

Non-agricultural Credit Societies—These societies, which include urban co-operative banks, urban credit societies, factory workers societies, thrift and credit societies, mill hands' societies, etc, are usually situated in towns and cater to the credit requirements of small traders and artisans, factory workers salary earners etc. There does not seem to be much difference between the constitution and management of urban credit societies and urban co-operative banks. Only those urban credit societies which are allowed to do banking business according to the standard and criteria laid down are allowed to use the word 'bank' as part of their names. In Amreli district there are five urban co-operative banks at Amreli, Kodinar, Lathi, Kunkavav and Chalala Just as agricultural credit societies play important part in the life of cultivators, non-agricultural credit societies help small traders, artisans, salary earners, etc., in meeting their requirements.

The Statement VI.3 that follows illustrates the operations of the agricultural and non-agricultural credit societies in the district between 1961-62 and 1967-68

STATEMENT VI.3

Operations of Agricultural/Non-Agricultural/Credit Societies, 1961-62 to 1967-68

Year 1	No. of societies 2	No. of members 3	Paid-up capital 4	Working capital 5	Loans advanced 6	Overdues 7	Deposits 8	Reserve and other funds 9
(A) Agricultural Credit Societies								
			Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs
1961-62	305	34,619	5,269,233	20,306,953	12,805,962	4,163,762	295,807	1,232,867
1962-63	347	37,490	5,835,939	24,369,934	9,646,044	4,747,591	252,508	1,426,734
1963-64	362	39,062	7,147,700	28,788,465	11,340,332	3,045,992	343,136	719,167
1964-65	371	41,359	10,670,510	34,053,944	22,832,481	4,350,065	561,836	1,988,788
1965-66	378	45,377	9,806,886	38,197,118	18,346,000	6,550,534	491,410	2,310,860
1966-67	382	45,472	10,781,440	44,268,680	24,754,830	6,083,700	642,650	2,690,090
1967-68	386	46,745	12,672,100	51,085,250	35,408,410	6,372,730	837,580	2,652,280
(B) Non-Agricultural Credit Societies								
1961-62	25	3,088	179,750	934,652	1,329,197	.	545,172	44,318
1962-63	25	4,955	299,168	1,541,460	1,732,180	80,562	836,913	63,465
1963-64	23	4,955	347,780	1,797,069	1,878,504	115,120	1,070,768	75,807
1964-65	23	5,839	457,527	2,379,081	2,368,669	106,581	1,555,082	95,430
1965-66	23	6,283	537,848	2,850,987	4,256,474	106,424	1,634,266	122,002
1966-67	22	7,113	616,053	2,630,309	4,495,660	96,025	2,408,134	153,968
1967-68	23	8,270	697,650	3,728,260	5,638,050	126,110	2,501,050	171,060

Source :

Assistant District Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Amreli

It would be observed from the above statement that satisfactory progress has been achieved in the working of agricultural credit societies. This is visible in respect of membership, share and working capital and loans advanced by them. A large increase is noticed in the case of deposits which rose from Rs. 295,807 in 1961-62 to Rs. 837,580 in 1967-68, *i. e.*, more than three-fold increase. Similarly during the same period, paid-up capital, working capital, reserve and other funds and loans advanced, etc., have also recorded significant rise.

As regards non-agricultural credit societies which also include urban co-operative banks, it can be observed that though the number of societies have remained more or less steady between 1961-62 and 1967-68, there is considerable expansion in respect of membership, paid-up capital, working capital, loans advanced and reserve and other funds, etc. The sizeable increase in the deposits from Rs 545,172 in 1961-62 to Rs. 2,501,050 in 1967-68 is indicative of the growing confidence the people have in the co-operative movement.

NON-CREDIT SOCIETIES

This sector covers both agricultural and non-agricultural non-credit societies. The agricultural non-credit societies include societies such as marketing, processing, lift irrigation, milk supply, etc. Here a specific reference is required to be made of *Shree Bileshwar Sahakari Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandali Ltd.*, at Kodinar, established in 1956. This society had membership of 3,093 and share capital of Rs. 7,000,000 in 1967-68 and an annual output of 27,339 tonnes of sugar. The factory also runs its own dispensary and provides canteen facilities to its workers. This is one of the most progressive sugar factories in the State. Co-operative societies in the non-agricultural sector are consumer co-operatives, housing co-operatives, fisheries, weavers, forest labour and labour contract societies, etc. In 1967-68, there were 146 non-credit societies in the district. The position of some of the more important societies in both the sectors is shown in the statement below.

STATEMENT VI.4

Working of Important Agricultural/Non-Agricultural/Non-Credit Societies, 1967-68

Sl. No.	Type of society	No. of societies	No of members	Paid-up share capital	Loans: From Government	Loans: From other sources	Working capital
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
	A—Agricultural/Non-Credit Societies						
1.	Marketing Societies	10	1,533	988,376	134,820	769,670	2,144,760
2.	Farming Societies	17	320	57,920	40,120	22,050	71,220
3.	Lift Irrigation Societies	6	147	23,940	37,560	..	100,850
	B—Non-Agricultural/Non-Credit Societies						
1.	Fisheries Co-operative Societies	5	955	35,890	..	66,690	196,410
2.	Consumer Co-operative Societies ..	17	1,399	74,940		61,875	215,087
3.	Housing Co-operative Societies . .	10	750	13,030	..	2,700	79,500
4.	Weavers Co-operative Societies	6	818	63,995	22,698	80,302	265,175
5.	Tanners and Leather Workers Co-operative Societies .	6	234	11,157	.	..	12,302

Among agricultural non-credit societies, marketing societies are the most important. In view of the large cash crops of groundnut and sugarcane in the district, marketing societies have a special role to play.

As regards non-agricultural non-credit societies, the number of consumers' co-operatives is the highest, with highest membership as also the maximum amount of paid-up share capital In the Amreli district there are good fishing ports like Jafrabad and Mul Dwarka. Weavers' co-operative societies also occupy an important place in Bagasara and Amreli. This will be evident from their membership as also from their working capital.

Amreli District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd.—As seen earlier, this Bank was established by the end of the year 1909 in Amreli town of Amreli Prant which then formed a part of the former Baroda State and was styled 'Khetivadi Pedhi'. In addition to providing finance to the agriculturists at reasonable rates of interest, it undertook to supply controlled articles like foodgrains, agricultural implements, cement, steel, etc. After the merger of the Baroda State into Bombay State on 1st May, 1949, the

bank was transformed into the *Amreli Jilla Madhyastha Sahakari Bank Ltd.* As the central financing agency, it catered to the credit requirements of Amreli and Dhari talukas and Khambha and Damnagar mahals. The bank's first branch was opened at Damnagar in 1956 and the second at Dhari in 1957 However, in the areas transferred to Amreli in 1959 under the scheme of reorganisation of districts, the branches of the Saurashtra State Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., were functioning. They were then placed under the jurisdiction of the Amreli District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd On the formation of Gujarat State in 1960, the Saurashtra State Central Co-operative Bank was converted into the Gujarat State Centarl Co-operative Bank. In order to cope up with the increased activities, additional branches were opened at important centres in the district. At present the bank functions through its head office at Amreli and fourteen branch offices in the district thus covering all the talukas/mahals of the district (except the Kodinar taluka which is served by a separate bank called the Kodinar Taluka Co-operative Bank). The bank provides short-term finance to the agricultural credit societies for a period of 12 to 15 months for raising crops and medium-term loans for a period of three years for the purchase of bullocks, milch cattle, carts and other agricultural implements It also offers credit facilities against general assets of salary earners' societies, transport societies, cattle owners' societies and urban co-operative banks for meeting the requirements of their members.

Statement VI 5 below gives an idea about the working of the bank in the district —

STATEMENT VI.5

Operations of the Amreli District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., 1963-64 to 1967-68

(Rs in lakhs)

Sl. No	Particulars	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
1	No. of members					
	(a) Individuals	359	347	343	341	333
	(b) Societies	400	418	429	436	438
2	Paid-up share capital (Rs.)	35 15	43 83	47 52	50 04	55 02
3	Reserve and other funds ..	4 57	7 11	7 83	9 10	10 83
4	Total deposits ..	48 03	59 16	54.33	51 08	65 36
5.	Working capital ..	191 93	238 61	239 73	267 08	294 11
6	Investment including fixed deposits ..	3 32	3 90	9 31	8 43	10 31
7.	Loans advanced ..	153 35	195 76	198 61	230.83	254 36
8	Loans outstanding ..	142 32	157 12	175 63	146 52	203 00
9	Recoveries ..	116 95	152 29	97.37	147 76	167 11
10	Overdues ..	14 68	24 53	27 62	31 04	21.46

Source:
The Manager, District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Amreli.

It will appear from the above statement that the number of individual members has decreased from 359 in 1963-64 to 333 in 1967-68. Against this decrease, the number of societies has increased from 400 to 438 during this period. This may be attributed to the Government policy of encouraging membership of societies in preference to that of individuals. Significant features of the period are that loan advances of the banks increased from Rs. 153.35 lakhs to Rs. 254.36 lakhs, paid-up share capital from Rs. 35.15 lakhs to Rs. 55.02 lakhs, investment in fixed deposits from Rs. 48.03 lakhs to Rs. 65.36 lakhs and the working capital rose from Rs. 191.93 lakhs to Rs. 294.11 lakhs. The sudden rise in the deposits was due to the patronising attitude of the Panchavati Raj bodies which are called upon to deposit their money in co-operative banks. The increase in the investment in fixed deposits was due to the application of Indian Banking Companies Act to the co-operative banks under which the latter were required to maintain a certain percentage of liquidity reserve. The recoveries effected may be said to be satisfactory. The overdues which amounted to Rs. 31.04 lakhs in 1966-67 have been substantially brought down to Rs. 21.46 lakhs in 1967-68 because of good agricultural season.

KODINAR TALUKA BANKING UNION

As seen earlier, the Kodinar Taluka Banking Union is functioning as a central financing agency for the co-operative societies in the taluka. Its area of operation is limited to the Kodinar taluka only. It was established as early as 1912 with the main objectives of providing loans to the affiliated societies, towards their share capital constitution, and sale and purchase on commission basis the requirements of constituent societies such as agricultural implements, seeds and manures, insecticides and other articles. It also arranges for inspection and audit of the societies affiliated to it.

The Union has achieved much success in fulfilling the objectives for which it was constituted. Ever since its inception, the Union has played such an important role in popularising the co-operative movement and in introducing a number of agricultural improvements that the Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee paid a glowing tribute to its successful working in its report in 1929-30. It observed, "As a pure co-operative unit serving a small area, the Kodinar union has done excellent work. Apart from financing of the constituent societies and their supervision, it has succeeded in popularising many agricultural improvements such as the introduction of iron cane-crushers, Poona furnaces and pans, iron ploughs and improved seeds. It has also helped the members of the societies in the profitable disposal of their crops and in the purchase of their domestic requirements."[1]

1. *The Baroda Banking Inquiry Committee Report*, (1929-30), p. 83

This shows that the Kodinar Taluka Banking Union has played an important role in promoting the growth of co-operative movement. It has also made a remarkable progress. Its paid-up share and working capital rose from Rs. 5,620 and Rs. 58,360 in 1918-19 to Rs. 81,860 and Rs. 513,238 respectively in 1948-49 In 1967-69 they were of the order of Rs. 2,705,700 and Rs. 14,104,323 respectively. Similarly, its deposits and reserve funds rose from Rs 35,288 and Rs. 4,375 in 1918-19 to Rs. 7,342,863 and Rs 282,032 respectively in 1967-68 The loan advances went up from Rs 3,471,000 in 1961-62 to Rs. 14,078,000 in 1967-68, an increase of over three hundred per cent. This apparently shows the growing confidence of the people at large in the soundness of the co-operative movement. This is borne out by the following statistics :—

Operations of Kodinar Taluka Co-operative Banking Union Ltd, Kodinar, 1961 62 to 1967-68

(IN THOUSAND RUPEES)

Sl No.	Particulars	1961 -62	1962 -63	1963 -64	1964 -65	1965 -66	1966 -67	1967 -68
1	No of members							
	(a) Individuals	54	54	54	53	52	51	51
	(b) Societies	77	77	80	80	76	78	79
2.	Paid-up share capital (Rs.) .	500	629	965	1,300	1,621	2,136	2,067
3.	Reserve and other funds (Rs)	239	253	277	315	366	414	465
4	Total deposits (Rs)	1,364	1,888	3,156	2,748	3,071	4,295	7,343
5	Working capital (Rs)	4,284	5,428	7,286	9,626	10,081	14,282	14,140
6	Investments including fixed deposits (Rs) ..	540	1,528	2,148	2,121	1,994	4,121	2,172
7	Total loans advanced (Rs.)	3,471	4,303	6,165	8,598	8,833	12,353	14,078
8	Loans outstanding (Rs)	2,877	3,565	4,864	6,707	7,644	9,712	11,419
9.	Recoveries (Rs) . .	3,296	3,615	4,866	6,755	7,895	10,285	12,370
10.	Overdues (Rs)	9	5	3		191	114	42

LONG TERM FINANCE

The Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank

Besides short and medium term finance, which is provided by the District Central Co-operative Bank through the agricultural credit societies, the farmers also require long-term finance to effect improvement of a permanent nature in land with such costly appliances as tractors, electric motors and pumps, etc. Such financial accommodation is also required for digging of new wells and repairs of old ones The Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank is the only agency in the State which provides

long-term finance to the cultivators for the above purposes. The Bank functions in the Amreli district through its branch offices situated at every taluka/mahal headquarters. Since inception, the Bank has advanced Rs. 4.6 crores till 1967-68 for these purposes. Activities of the Bank are given in detail in the Chapter IV—Agriculture and Irrigation.

OTHER SOURCES

Small Savings—Small Savings Schemes have been devised by the Government mainly with a view to mobilise public savings and to raise funds for financing development projects and at the same time encourage the habit of thrift among the people. The scheme dates back to the First World War, 1914-18, when the Government of India introduced the postal cash certificates for the first time. During World War II, the Government of India started in 1943 the Post Office National Savings Certificates Scheme with a view to mopping up excess purchasing power of the people generated by increased War expenditure and also to check the inflationary spiral created by War conditions.

During the post-Independence period, the Government of India introduced a wide range of securities under the small savings at attractive rates of interest as it was hoped that they would provide large funds for financing the diverse Governmental activities and the schemes included in the Five Year Plans The securities offered are 12-Year National Savings Certificates (renamed the 12-Year National Defence Certificates in 1962), 10-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates (also renamed the 10-Year Defence Deposit Certificates), 15-Year Annuity Certificates and Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme. The Post Office Savings Bank has proved to be another important source for collecting the deposits from semi-urban and rural areas on account of their wide net-work and the quick facilities provided.

The statement that follows illustrates the extent of investment attracted by the above securities between 1964-65 and 1967-68 :—

(IN THOUSAND RUPEES)

Sl No	Category	Gross collections during 1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-6
1	National Defence Certificates ...	497	321	267	210
2	10-Year Defence Deposit Certificates	43	..	..	..
3.	15-Year Annuity Certificates . .	..	..	..	..
4	Cumulative Time Deposit Schemes	48	67	101	119
5	Post Office Savings Bank ..	1,875	2,772	2,635	3,587
	Total	2,463	3,160	3,003	3,916

The above statement reveals that the Post Office Savings Bank and the National Defence Certificates are the popular media of investment among the public, and the investment under them increased from Rs. 23.72 lakhs to Rs. 37.97 lakhs during this period In terms of percentage they were almost over 95 per cent of the total deposits.

Unit Trust—The Unit Trust of India has been created under the Unit Trust of India Act, 1963 to afford the small investor means of acquiring a share in the widening prosperity,based on steady industrial growth of the country The scheme combines the advantages of minimum risk with a reasonable return It helps in the mobilisation of resources and their channelling into investment by increasing the overall productivity of capital and providing funds required for the development plans. The face value of each unit is kept at Rs 10/- with a view to attracting a large number of small investors. The Trust pools savings of the community and invests them in different types of securities such as Government securities, industrial debentures, preference shares and equities in a manner which offers to the individual investor reasonable return on his savings. Being always ready both to sell and to buy its units at stated prices, the Trust offers an additional advantage of liquidity of investment. The Unit Trust has been provided with an initial capital of Rs 5 crores contributed by the Reserve Bank of India, Life Insurance Corporation, State Bank of India and its subsidiaries, scheduled banks and other specified financial institutions. Its management is vested in a Board of Trustees with the Chairman appointed by the Reserve Bank of India One of the important concessions provided by the Unit Trust Act is exemption from income-tax on dividend upto Rs 1,000.

Insurance—Agencies doing insurance business play an important role in tapping a portion of the public savings in the form of insurance premia. With the nationalisation of life insurance business in 1956, the Life Insurance Corporation of India has become the foremost and the largest single agency doing life insurance business in India. The Corporation was constituted by a Parliamentary enactment in 1956 and was officially constituted on 1st September, 1956. From this date onwards all insurance companies - Indian and foreign-ceased to carry on life insurance business anywhere in India However, general insurance business which includes fire, marine, accident, etc, was kept open to private enterprise. From April, 1964 the Life Insurance Corporation has also opened its General Insurance Department, which competes with private agencies in the field of general insurance

In the organisational and administrative set-up of the Life Insurance Corporation, Amreli district has been placed under the territorial jurisdiction of the Rajkot division. The sub-office of the Corporation at Amreli covers the entire district. The number of agents canvassing life and

general insurance business in the district numbered 1,189 in 1967-68. From 1964-65 to 1967-68, the Corporation issued in the district 7,696 life insurance policies valued at Rs. 2.62 crores, and the total premia collected during this period amounted to Rs. 6,813,296. The General Insurance Department of the Corporation also collected premium of Rs. 5,073 till 1967-68 on general insurance policies which includes fire, marine, motor accident, etc.

Private and Public Limited Companies—Besides Insurance companies and banks, limited companies, private and public, play an important role in attracting savings to finance diverse economic activities such as manufacturing, trading, transport and the like. Company finance constitutes an important aspect in the study of financial resources in the economic structure of a district Amreli district is probably one of the most backward districts from the point of number of private and public limited companies. Till 1969 no public limited companies were registered in the district The Vijay Oil Mills established in 1946 was the first private company registered in the district. It is defunct at present. Of the three private transport companies, two have been wound up following the nationalisation of road transport The only private limited company working in the district at present is the Dedan Union Transport Co. Ltd, established in 1951 at Bagasara. Its authorised, paid-up and subscribed capital is Rs 30,000 as on 31st December, 1969.

ASSISTANCE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

I *Assistance from the State Government*

In the foregoing pages we have seen the main agencies providing financial assistance to the agriculture. However, the industries sector being complex, unless large funds are pumped in it, its development would not be rapid as desired. With this end in view, various corporations have been established in the country for public and private sectors. The role played and the extent of monetary assistance provided by them is briefly reviewed below.

The Gujarat Small Industries Corporation—This Corporation was incorporated as a public limited company in 1962 with an authorised capital of Rs. 50 lakhs Its aim is to assist, protect and promote interests of small scale industries in the State and provide technical and managerial assistance and help in the procurement of raw materials, machinery, equipment, tools and appliances. It assists small industries by (i) providing raw materials, (ii) importing in bulk against actual users' import licences held by small scale units, (iii) supplying machinery on hire-purchase basis and (iv) marketing their products. The corporation supplied tubeless tyres for animal driven vehicles to one unit valued at Rs. 17,500.

The Gujarat State Financial Corporation—The Gujarat State Financial Corporation was established in 1960 with a view to meet requirements of loans/funds for all categories of industries. It provides financial accommodation to small, medium and large industries for acquiring capital and productive assets like land, building, plant and machinery for expansion, renovation or modernisation. Such loans are granted usually for a period from 7 to 10 years The Corporation acted as an agent to the State Government and was delegated powers to receive, consider, sanction and disburse loans under the agreements called the Agency Agreements beyond Rs 10,000 but upto a maximum of Rs. 25,000 under the State Aid to Cottage and Small Scale Industries Rules, 1935 from the funds placed at its disposal by the Government. This system of Agency Agreements which was in force since 1960 was discontinued from September, 1968 and the Corporation was asked to give loans from its own funds at the rate of 5 per cent interest to deserving small scale units which fulfilled prescribed norms upto Rs. 75,000 (in exceptional cases upto Rs 1 lakh) in each case, with prior permission of Government The difference between the subsidised rate and the Corporation's normal rate of interest would be recompensed by Government. Under the Act, the Corporation is authorised to grant loans upto Rs 10 lakhs to all industrial concerns other than public limited companies or registered co-operative societies To the public limited companies and co-operative societies, the Corporation can render assistance upto Rs 20 lakhs.

Till the end of March, 1969, out of 6 applications for loans totalling Rs 6.35 lakhs received, the Corporation sanctioned 2 applications for loans of Rs 71,000 rejected 3 applications for Rs 4.80 lakhs and 1 application for a loan of Rs 65,000 was pending

The Gujarat Industrial Development Corporation—This Corporation was established in 1962 for development of industrial estates and areas. It encourages growth of industries by establishing and managing industrial estates It undertakes schemes of industrial development either jointly with the State Government or local bodies or on agency basis. An industrial estate has been established by the Corporation at Amreli at an estimated cost of Rs 5 lakhs Out of 9 sheds, only 3 sheds are occupied

The Financial Assistance by Government—Small scale and cottage industries also receive financial assistance from the State Directorate of Industries and the Registrar of Co-operative Societies The former grants loans upto Rs 10,000 under the State Aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries Rules 1935 A sum of Rs 8,000 was disbursed to a single unit in the district by the Industries Department upto the year 1967-68 [1]

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1. The functions of giving loans upto Rs 10,000 under State Aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries Rules have been transferred from 1-1-70 to Gujarat State Financial Corporation.

The Gujarat State Industrial Investment Corporation—The Gujarat State Industrial Investment Corporation came into existence as a public limited company in August, 1968, for promoting new ventures and new lines of manufacture. It started with a share capital of Rs. 10 crores to encourage creation, expansion and modernisation of industrial concerns in the State. It provides medium and long term loans for a period from 8 to 12 years. The main object of the corporation is to channelise investments of various financing agencies and help new industries in the State which are in need of finance. It assists the industries by (i) capital participation in the form of equity and preference shares, (2) sponsoring and underwriting of new issues of shares and securities, (3) providing long and medium term loans and (4) capital participation in co-operation with the banks and other financial institutions like the Gujarat State Financial Corporation, the Gujarat Small Industries Corporation, the Gujarat Industrial Development Corporation, etc.

The Corporation provides financial assistance to the competent technicians to the extent of Rs. 2 lakhs in individual cases and to the extent of Rs. 3 lakhs in the case of partnership concerns for the purchase of land, building, machinery and other fixed assets Another important scheme for which the Corporation provides financial assistance in collaboration with the Gujarat Small Industries Corporation and the Gujarat Industrial Development Corporation is the construction of rural workshops in the State, repairing of tractors, oil engines, pumps, and other agricultural implements and accessories. However, no industrial unit in this district availed of the assistance provided by the Corporation till August, 1969.

II *Assistance from the Central Government*

With a view to achieving further expansion of industries in the country, the Government of India have created (i) the Industrial Finance Corporation, (ii) The National Industrial Development Corporation and (iii) the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India. These institutions also advance medium and long term loans to industries in public and private sectors. The purposes for which they are established and the extent of finance provided by them to the industrial units in the district are narrated below.

The Industrial Finance Corporation of India—The Corporation was created in 1948 to provide medium and long term finance to industries promoted by public limited companies and co-operative societies. Industries engaged in the manufacture, preservation or processing of goods, or in shipping, mining and generation or distribution of electricity or any other form of power are eligible for financial assistance from the Corporation. It provided assistance to the tune of Rs. 60 lakhs to the sugar factory at Kodinar in the district till 1968-69.

The Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India—This corporation was established in 1955 as a privately owned financial institution to encourage and assist industrial investment in India. It advances loans to industries in the private sector. These loans are secured either against the assets of the company or guaranteed by banks or insurance companies. Its capital amounts to Rs. 25 crores. No industrial unit in the district has availed of the facility provided by the Corporation till 31st December, 1968.

The National Industrial Development Corporation—This Corporation was started by the Government of India as a Government-owned private limited company in 1954. It is authorised to start new industries with Government money in spheres where the size of capital required or the risks involved deter private capital. It also secures foreign technical collaboration in preparing project reports concerning new industries. No assistance has been provided by this Corporation in the district till March, 1969.

III OTHER AGENCIES

Banking institutions like the State Bank of India and its subsidiaries, the Industrial Development Bank and the Saurashtra Small Industries Co-operative Bank, Ltd. also provide financial aid to large, medium and small industries.

The Industrial Development Bank—The Industrial Development Bank of India was established in 1964 as an apex all-India institution to co-ordinate the activities of other financial institutions to provide direct financial assistance to industrial units and to bridge the gap between the supply of and demand for medium and long term finance. As a subsidiary to the Reserve Bank of India, the Industrial Development Bank took over the functions of the Refinance Corporation for Industry Ltd., from September, 1964. It provides (a) refinance to a large number of financial institutions and (b) direct financial assistance to industrial concerns in the form of loans and advances, subscribing, purchasing or underwriting issues of stocks, shares, bonds or debentures, guaranteeing deferred payments due form industrial concerns to third parties and loans raised by them in the open market or from other financial institutions. No industry in this district has so far availed of the financial assistance from the Bank.

Pilot Scheme—The State Bank of India, the State Bank of Saurashtra and their subsidiaries provide financial accommodation to the small scale industrial units in the State under the 'Pilot Scheme'. The scheme has been in operation since 1956, whereunder credit facilities are provided for the purchase of raw materials and stores including those in the process of production and the finance required for holding the products pending sale. Under this scheme, the Bank has sanctioned credit to the extent of Rs. 70,000

to three small scale units manufacturing soap, paints, matches and to cotton textiles in the year 1967.

The Saurashtra Small Industries Co-operative Bank Ltd., Rajkot—The Bank was registered at Rajkot in 1956 to advance short, medium and long term loans to the urban co-operative banks, industrial co-operatives and individual artisans in Saurashtra to enable them to purchase raw materials, machinery and other appliances and to build workshops. It also provides finance for working capital It thus helps establish new industries or develop and expand existing units on individual or co-operative basis. Till 1966-67, the bank advanced Rs. 171,500 to 13 industrial units in Amreli district which included industrial co-operatives and individual artisans.

CURRENCY AND COINAGE

The numismatic evidence of the ancient period in Amreli is found from the archaeological excavations at Gohilwad *Timbo* (mound) situated near Amreli town. These excavations which were carried out between 1932 and 1945 and again in 1952 have brought to light valuable information regarding the different coins prevalent at different periods The earliest coins found were 'Punch marked copper coins' which could be assigned to the first century B. C., if not earlier Nearly 300 coins of Kshatrapa rulers (78 A. D. to 378 A. D) have also been discovered from these excavations. After the end of the rule of 300 years of the Kshatrapas in about 378 A. D. Gujarat and Malwa came under the sway of the Guptas, during the reign of Chandragupta II (C. 376-414). A hoard of 2,000 silver coins of Kumargupta I bearing on the obverse the bust of king to the right and legend reading '*Parma Bhagavata Kumaragupta Mahendraditya*, on the reverse were found from the Amreli excavations conducted before 1945. Traces of the *garuda* (eagle) symbol are also found on many of them. They weighed normally 29 to 32 grains. Details about these and other important coins found from the excavations conducted before 1945 and during 1952-53 are given in the tabular form at the end of this chapter (Appendix I and II).

After the fall of the Gupta empire, the powerful kingdom of Maitrakas came into existence in Vallabhipur near Bhavnagar They issued their coins which were mainly of silver. They were imperfect imitation of coins of the Guptas, and were in circulation all over Saurashtra till the fag end of the 8th century A. D.

Indo-Sassanian coins were current in Malwa and Gujarat between the 8th and the 11th centuries A. D. They were thick and circular pieces bearing the crude head of the king of Sassanian pattern. However, we do not have any concrete numismatic evidence to prove the use of metal currency from the middle of the 10th century upto the end of the 13th century. However, two gold and six silver coins ascribed to the Gujarat ruler Siddharaj Jayasinh of Patan have been found in these excavations Thus the coins in

the ancient period were by and large made of silver and copper. The coins differed in size, shape and thickness.

In 1298 A. D., the Muslim domination was first introduced in Gujarat and ended with the capture of Ahmedabad by the Marathas in 1758. During this period, their currency was in vogue in Gujarat. According to the *Ain-e-Akbari*, a copper coin called *dam* was current and one rupee was equal to 40 *dams*.

Amreli came under the Baroda ruler from 1738 A. D. and the currency of Baroda State was introduced in the district. A mint was perhaps established in Baroda in 1748 A. D. The silver coins consisting of rupees, half rupees, quarter rupees and two anna bits known as *siyashahi* or more commonly *babashahi* rupees became current in Amreli district. This *babashahi* rupee had a fluctuating exchange rate with the British rupee. The exchange rate varied from 100 to 120 *babashahi* rupees for 100 British rupees. The value of *babashahi* rupee was less than that of British because it was lighter in weight, though its purity was not inferior. However, frequent fluctuations in the exchange rate caused great losses to merchants, and trade with Baroda became difficult. Because of the crudeness of the Baroda rupee, it was much counterfeited. The situation was more aggravated in the famine year of 1899-1900, when the market value of the *babashahi* rupees in relation to the British rupees was much depreciated. A large volume of the British coins were needed to pay for imports of foodgrains in the Baroda State. To tide over this situation, it was decided in 1900 under an arrangement with the Government of India to substitute British Indian silver coins for *babashahi* silver coins[1]. Accordingly from 13th February, 1901, the British Indian silver currency became legal tender in place of the *babashahi* silver coins. While withdrawing *babashahi* silver coins from circulation, the exchange rate fixed by the State was 130 *babashahi* rupees for every 100 British Indian silver rupees. Coming to the Amreli district, it could be seen from the account kept in the Huzur Account Department of the old Baroda State that till Vikram *Samvat* 1938 (1882 A. D.), Government revenue was paid in various kinds of coins, *viz*., *babashai*, *shukaus*, Spanish dollar (*ral*) and *koris*, etc. In Kodinar taluka, however, transactions were made also in Spanish dollar or *ral*. This currency crept into use in this part from the former neighbouring Portuguese Settlement of Diu. However, as this currency was not sufficient to permit all the payments, in November 1878 Raja Sir T. Madhavrao Dewan of Baroda, fixed the value of Spanish dollar in transactions between the Sarkar and ryot at Rs. 2-5-0 of British currency. It will thus appear that the British rupee became legal tender from 1901 in Amreli district along with other territories of the Baroda State.

1 Copper coins of the Baroda State, however, were allowed to remain in circulation and the value of British Indian rupee was fixed as being equal to 80 *paise* of the State.

Decimal Coinage—After Independence the Baroda State was merged in the former Bombay State in 1949. In 1957, the Government of India introduced the 'Decimal Coinage' in terms of rupees and paise throughout the country. For sometime, both old and new coins remained in circulation till the old coins were progressively withdrawn.

The present coinage is issued in the denominations of 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, 25, and 50 paise, one rupee being equivalent to 100 paise. Currency notes are issued in the denominations of 1, 2, 5, 10, 100 and 1,000 rupees. The conversion ratio of the old and new coins is shown below :—

Conversion Ratio of Old and New Coins

Old coinage	Old	New*	Old	New*
3 pies = 1 *paisa*	1 pie	= 1 paisa	1 anna (12 pies)	= 6 paise
6 ,, = ¼ anna, 2 *paisa*	2 pies	= 2 paise	2 annas	= 12 ,,
12 ,, = 1 anna, 4 *paisa*	3 ,,	= 2 ,,	3 ,,	= 19 ,,
4 *paisa* = 1 anna	4 ,,	= 2 ,,	4 ,,	= 25 ,,
8 *paisa* = 2 annas	5 ,,	= 3 ,,	5 ,,	= 31 ,,
12 ,, 3 annas	6 ,,	— 3 ,,	6 ,,	= 37 ,,
16 ,, = 4 annas	7 ,,	= 4 ,,	7 ,,	= 44 ,,
32 ,, = 8 annas	8 ,,	= 4 ,,	8 ,,	= 50 ,,
64 ,, = 1 rupee	9 ,,	= 5 ,,	9 ,,	= 56 ,,
	10 ,,	— 5 ,,	10 ,,	= 62 ,,
	11 ,,	= 6 ,,	11 ,,	= 69 ,,
			12 ,,	= 75 ,,
			13 ,,	= 81 ,,
			14 ,,	= 87 ,,
			15 ,,	= 94 ,,
			16 ,,	=100 ,,

B—Trade and Commerce

Course of Trade

According to the *Baroda State Gazetteer* (1923), the main commodities of imports in the district were grains, sugar (including raw sugar), metals, cloth, dates (dry), betelnuts, coconuts, timber, ropes, *gur*, kerosene, oil and tobacco. Among cereals, wheat, rice, and split pulse were the main items. The bulk of the requirements of cereals was met by imports from Bombay, Karachi and Bhavnagar Rice was brought from Bombay and North India, and *tur dal* from the Kaira district. Imports were made in bulk by merchants of the chief trading centres and retailers bought their requirements from them. Nails, chains and other manufactured steel articles were brought by Bohra merchants.

* These were called 'naye paise' till June, 1964 and 'paise' only thereafter.

Exports consisted mainly of cotton (raw), cereals, oil, sesamum, castor-seeds, wool, *ghee* and building stones. It was the usual custom with village merchants to give some advance loans to the cultivators for purchase of cotton. In the same manner, these village merchants borrowed money from wholesalers and made advances to cultivators. Wholesale merchants sent cotton, ginned either through spinning wheel or in a mill to chief cotton-centres, where it was pressed into bales and thence transported directly or through Bhavnagar to Bombay. Shepherds shore sheep wool and gave it to petty merchants who in turn, sold it to wholesalers who arranged for its export to Bombay. *Ghee* was obtained from the Panchal area, the Barda Hills and the Gir forests. From Gir, it was collected at Dhari and Khambha and sent to Jafrabad, while *ghee* from Kodinar was sent directly to Bombay. Amreli served as a market place for the Amreli taluka, Kundla and Amreli did the same for Dhari. There were small markets at Chalala, Dharangani and Dhari which met local needs, but for cash crops like cotton, Amreli and Kundla were the main centres. Khambha served as a market place for Khambha mahal, where *ghee*, grass and timber brought from Gir forests were sold. Damnagar was the chief centre for the taluka which had trade relations with Bhavnagar and Palitana. A regular market was subsequently constructed at Amreli. In the absence of regular markets at other centres in the district street vendors and hawkers either sat on the pavements or moved in streets for selling cereals and vegetables.1

Customs

According to the agreements concluded by the former Baroda State with the British Government, the customs duties were levied at the ports in Amreli Prant particularly at Kodinar, at rates not lower than those in force in British Indian ports. If the British customs tariff duties were lower, then customs duties were collected according to the British rates and if they were higher duties were collected at the rates imposed by the Baroda State Government. Thus, customs tariff rates varied according to the changes in the British tariff rates. The tariff duties levied at British tariff rates on different commodities were as under.2

Commodities like fish, vegetables, spices, sugar and sweetmeat, tea, coffee, oil, kerosene oil, metals, timber and furniture were charged at the rates of 7½ per cent, grains, *ghee*, betelnuts and fuel-wood at 2½ per cent, tobacco Re. 1 per lb. and cigarettes 50 per cent, while wine was charged at Re. 0-4-6 per gallon. No duty was charged on salt, hides, oil seeds and wool. According to the customs tariff imposed by the State Government, import duty on silk and kerosene oil was Rs. 6-4-0 per cent, cotton cloth, sugar, sugar crystals and grocery articles were charged Rs. 4-11-0 per cent. Export duty on grass was Rs. 6-4-0 per cent, sesamum, wool, etc., Rs. 4-11-0

1. *Amreli Prant Sarvasangraha*, (1919-20), pp. 123-125

2. *Ibid*, pp. 121-122

per cent, castor seeds, gur, *methi* and onion Rs. 3-2-0 per cent, *ghee* Rs. 2-8-0 per local maund, cotton (raw) Re. 0-2-6, cotton and cotton seeds at rates varying from 6 paise to Re. 0-1-6, fish 1 *anna* per maund; and hides 2 annas per piece on large ones and 1 *anna* on small ones.

This position continued upto Independence The Standstill Agreement was executed by the rulers, by which the centre came to control three subjects, *viz*., defence, communications and external affairs. This Agreement did not affect the previous customs agreements In the meanwhile, the State was merged with the adjoining Bombay State in 1949. But with the coming into force of the Constitution of India in 1950, the right to levy customs duties and to manage major means of communications came to be vested in the Centre.

Maritime trade—The district has five working non-intermediate minor ports, *viz*, Jafrabad, Pipavav, Kodinar, Kotda and Madhwad Of these, the first two are under the administrative charge of the Port Officer, Mahuva and the rest under the Port Officer, Veraval These ports handled 114,529 tonnes or 3 16 percent of the total cargo handled by all the intermediate and minor ports in the State in 1967-68 The Statement VI-6 also discloses that only Jafrabad and Pipavav had export traffic in salt carried to foreign countries like Japan and rest of the ports had only inland trade. Description of each of the ports and the statistics of the trade carried on by them is given below.

Jafrabad—The minor port of Jafrabad is situated on the south-east coast of the Saurashtra peninsula. It is well known as a fishing harbour. It deals with foreign and inland traffic. The statistics available from the year 1947-48 to 1956-57 are in ordinary tons, while from 1957-58 to 1967-68 are in metric tonnes. They reveal that the total trade rose from 12,756 tons in 1947-48 to 67,192 tons in 1952-53 but declined to 47,608 tons in 1954-55, on account of decrease in the imports of cereals, pulses and coal Thereafter, trade more or less continuously declined till it reached 36,352 tonnes in 1967-68.

The chief commodities of imports are timber, building materials, cotton seeds, mineral oils, foodgrains, etc Import trade of the port has, throughout the period, witnessed more or less continual decline with occasional increases From 4,273 tons in 1948-49, the imports declined to 3,425 tons in 1952-53 but increased to 5,807 tons in 1955-56 but again declined to 3,429 tons in 1956-57 and rose to 5,806 tonnes in 1959-60 Thereafter trade remained more or less steady upto 1965-66 but declined to 2,960 tonnes in 1966-67 on account of lesser imports of building materials. Import trade position slightly improved afterwards and stood at 3,725 tonnes in 1967-68.

The main items of exports from the port are salt, fish and other miscellaneous commodities. The figures of export trade are more pronounced than those of imports on account of location of salt works. Its export contributes a larger share in the trade structure. However, in recent years export of salt has declined, on account of shipping difficulties and non-availability of foreign exchange. Pipavav and Jafrabad are the main ports of the district which export salt by sailing vessels to South Gujarat ports and other countries. From 9,440 tons, exports rose to 63,767 tons in 1952-53. Salt contributed almost 90 per cent of the exports. Thereafter, exports have shown a declining trend. From 51,450 tons in 1953-54, they have dropped to 32,627 tonnes in 1967-68 on account of less exports of salt. Fish is the next important item of export and Jafrabad is famous as a fishing port, and contributed 2,018 tonnes towards exports in 1967-68. As stated earlier, this port is famous for its salt export carried even to foreign countries like Japan. The foreign export trade suffered a set-back and from 9,703 tonnes in 1961-62, it progressively declined to 7,800 tonnes in 1967-68 on account of difficulties encountered in their despatch. The foreign exchange earned had also declined from Rs. 232,872 in 1962-63 to Rs. 171,600 in 1967-68.

Pipavav.—This minor port under the administrative control of the Port Officer, Mahuva, is situated on the south-east coast of Saurashtra peninsula. The port was known as Rajula but has been renamed Pipavav Bunder from 1963-64 and has two working sites, *viz.*, Albert Victor and Bherai. These were also separate ports till then. The statistics, therefore, of trade of the port are inclusive of those of Albert Victor and Bherai. The salt works at Pipavav and stone quarries round-about Rajula provide good export traffic.

The picture of the total trade at the port reveals a rising trend. It rose from 3,762 tons in 1947-48 to 19,371 tons in 1953-54 and again from 13,368 tons in 1955-56 to 75,133 tonnes in 1967-68. This shows an upward trend in exports.

The chief commodities of imports are timber, tiles, cotton seeds, kerosene and other miscellaneous articles. The import trade statistics reveal on the whole, a declining trend. The highest imports noticed were 5,523 tonnes in 1957-58. Exports consist of salt, building stones and other miscellaneous articles. The statistics of export reveal, on the whole, a rising trend. From 1,086 tons in 1947-48, exports rose to 18,045 tons in 1953-54 and from 22,776 tonnes in 1957-58 to 74,307 tonnes in 1967-68. The only period of the lower exports reported was 1954-55 when export was as low as 3,210 tons. The port is noted for its export of salt and building stones. Salt is sent to Japan and other countries and it rose from 20,045 tonnes in 1958-59 to 42,790 tonnes in 1966-67, when foreign exchange earned likewise rose from Rs. 259,802 in 1962-63 to 805,330 in 1967-68.

OTHER PORTS

The last three minor ports Kotda, Kodinar and Madhawad are fair weather working ports and are under the administrative charge of the Port Officer, Veraval. Though they are open both to foreign and coastal traffic, these ports do not seem to have handled any foreign trade since 1958-59. Mostly they are fishing ports. Mul Dwarka is a convenient place for fishing. Kodinar is famous for its co-operative sugar factory. The important commodities imported at these ports are building materials including wood and timber, fuel oil, hardware, etc. Those exported are fish, lime-stone, etc. The export traffic at Kodinar is absent from 1960-61. The total trade at Kotda declined from 3,349 tons to 46 tonnes in 1959-60, but rose from 103 tonnes to 669 tonnes in 1962-63 and it declined to 335 tonnes in 1963-64, on account of decrease of export of fish and other miscellaneous items It again rose to 2,141 tonnes in 1965-66 on account of substantial increase of export of fish but declined to 1,196 tonnes on account of fall in import of wood and timber and export of fish in 1966-67

The trend at the Kodinar port is one of rapid decline From 7,268 tons in 1954-55, it went down to 102 tonnes in 1968. Imports also suffered similar set-back From 3,532 tons in 1954-55, it declined to 102 tonnes in 1967-68 Though exports are totally absent from 1959-60, even here a stiff fall is witnessed, *i e.*, from 3,736 tons in 1954-55 to 612 tonnes in 1958-59. The total trade at Madhawad witnessed fluctuations From 789 tons in 1953-54, it rose to 5,380 tons in 1956-57, but declined to 1,985 tonnes in 1958-59, again rose to 3,153 tonnes in 1961-62 but declined to 1,673 tonnes in 1963-64. It rose to 2,724 tonnes in 1965-66 but went down to 1,191 tonnes in 1968 On the import side, the port handled a maximum trade of 2,448 tons in 1956-57 but declined to 502 tonnes in 1964-65. It subsequently rose to 941 tonnes in 1965-66 but went down to 398 tonnes in 1967-68. On the export side too it rose from 420 tons in 1953-54 to 2,932 tons in 1956-57 but declined to 1,571 tonnes in 1958-59 After recording a significant rise of 2,534 tonnes in 1961-62 it progressively fell to 793 tonnes in 1967-68, on account of decline in the importance of these ports. It will thus appear that the fortunes of these minor ports have fluctuated with the changes in the structure of imports and exports.

Statements VI. 6-7 give statistics of tonnage of imports into and exports from these ports for the periods from which they are available.

STATEMENT VI.6

Tonnage of Imports and Exports at Jafrabad and Pipavav

Year	Jafrabad			Pipavav		
	Imports	Exports	Total	Imports	Exports	Total
1947-48	3,316	9,440	12,756	2 676	1,086	3,762
1948-49	4,273	33,943	38,216	2,098	1,228	3,326
1949-50	3,706	36,926	40,632	1,927	1,010	2,937
1950-51	3,433	37,535	40,968	1,936	1,037	2,973
1951-52	3,083	52,200	55,283	1,630	1,503	3,133
1952-53	3,425	63,767	67,192	1,100	2,054	3,154
1953-54	4,092	51,450	55,542	1,326	18,045	19,371
1954-55	4,479	43,129	47,608	1,517	3,210	4,727
1955-56	5,807	58,924	64,731	2,124	10,844	13,368
1956-57	3,429	45,312	48,741	1,421	11 809	13,230
1957-58*	5 013	35,529	40,542	5,523	22,776	28,299
1958-59	4,017	39,463	43,480	2 882	24,837	27,719
1959-60	5,806	31,667	37 473	1,259	27,812	29,071
1960-61	4 615	33 666	38,212	1,209	37,809	39,018
1961-62	4 564	24,967	29,531	943	49,097	50,040
1962-63	3,106	34 906	38 012	1,297	54,601	55,898
1963-64	3,748	29 613	33,361	750	52,944	53,694
1964-65	4,982	22 729	27 711	1,527	65,952	67,479
1965-66	4,542	28,079	32,621	1,703	59,766	61,469
1966-67	2,960	23,844	26,804	768	59,907	60,675
1967-68	3,725	32,627	36,352	1,126	74,307	75 433

* Figures from 1957-58 are in Metric Tonnes

STATEMENT VI.7

Tonnage of Imports and Exports at Other Minor Ports

Year	Kotada			Kodinar			Madhawad		
	Imports	Exports	Total	Imports	Exports	Total	Imports	Exports	Total
1953-54	1,464	1,885	3,349	1,820	2,244	4,064	369	420	789
1954-55	312	534	846	3,532	3,736	7,268	1,344	1,401	2,745
1955-56	483	151	634	253	454	707	2233	1,999	4,232
1956-57	10	257	267	273	158	431	2448	2.932	5,380
1957-58*	48	103	151	315	482	797	785	1,688	2,473
1958-59	14	42	56	302	612	914	414	1,571	1,985
1959-60	6	40	46	384		384	533	1,648	2.181
1960 61	76	27	103	405	..	405	716	2,415	3,131
1961-62	113		113	291	.	291	619	2,534	3,153
1962-63	302	367	669	357	.	357	586	1,311	1,897
1963-64	90	245	335	210	..	210	568	1,105	1,673
1964-65	186	751	937	160	.	160	502	1,620	2,122
1965-66	770	1,371	2,141	88	..	88	941	1,783	2,724
1966-67	547	649	1,196	181	..	181	8 60	1,377	2,237
1967-68	306	1,145	1,451	102	..	102	398	793	1,191

* Figures from 1957-58 are in Metric Tonnes.

Trade by Railways—In the composition of inland trade, railways help considerably in the movement of goods from one destination to another as well as through important trade centres. During the year 1968-69, the total tonnage of goods passing through railway wagons both originating (exports) and terminating imports) from each station in the district amounted to 1,245,486. Of these 730,380 tonnes were exports and 515,106 tonnes imports. This shows that the district has a large export potential consisting of groundnut, oil, sugar, timber, salt and stones from the quarries. The oil mill industry is particularly very famous in whole of Saurashtra and Amreli is no exception. Similarly Saurashtra is also famous for salt production. There are a number of salt works in the district and export of salt through railway and sea-waters is considerable. It is even sent to foreign countries from the State ports. The handloom cloth manufactured at Bagasara is also sent to places outside the district. The fertilisers manufactured at the fishmeal plant at Jafrabad are also sent out. Further the statistics also show that Damnagar, Rajula city, Bagasara, Amreli, Dungar, Lathi and Vadia-Devli stations are outstanding and have contributed the largest tonnage amounting to 1,202,894 tonnes. Even among these, the first three handled as much as 65.09 per cent of the total goods traffic during 1968-69.

WHOLESALE TRADE

Wholesale trade is usually concentrated in large towns or nearby ports which facilitate direct import and export and thus avoid transhipment and resultant loss in time and cost of transport. Inland trade is carried through important trade centres like Amreli, the headquarters of the district, and Lathi, Damnagar, Dhari, Kodinar, Rajula, Bagasara and Khambha, which are also centres of retail trade, being taluka headquarters. At all these centres, the practice of charging brokerage, quality allowance, weighing, etc. is in vogue, but the rates differ from market to market.

TRADE CENTRES

Amreli—Amreli is an important trade centre in the district. It is connected by a metre guage railway with Ahmedabad. It is connected also by good roads with other taluka centres as well as towns like Rajkot, Bhavnagar, Junagadh etc., of the adjacent districts. There were approximately 108 wholesale merchants in Amreli during 1967. Commodities like wheat, *bajri*, groundnut, *gur*, chillies, sesamum and *udid* were the chief items of wholesale trade valued approximately as under in 1967.

Name of the commodity					Transaction in Rs.
Wheat	...	...	...	...	8,259,509
Bajri	...	...	...	...	24,279,041
Groundnut		...	...	...	34,209,758
Gur	...	...	...	...	19,997,763
Chillies	...	...	...	...	1,070,200
Sesamum	...	...	...	...	2,777,753
Jowar	..	...	...	...	1,245,959
Udid	...	...	...	...	141,127
Total	...	...	...	...	91,981,110

Groundnut, *bajri* and *gur* are the main products of this district, which are exported to other districts in the State, while tea, vegetable *ghee*, etc., are imported from other centres. Amreli is the main receiving and distributing centre for the whole of the district.

Bagasara—Bagasara is another taluka centre noted for its wholesale trade in *gur*, *bajri*, wheat, chillies and handloom cloth. It is a railway station on Kunkavav-Bagasara metre gauge section of the Western Railway. It is also connected by bus-route with other taluka centres in this district and outside. There are commission agents in Bagasara, who purchase goods on behalf of other merchants outside Amreli district. Following are the details of transactions at the centre during the year 1967 :—

Name of the commodity				Transaction in Rs.
Gur	...	...	...	624,380
Wheat	...	...	...	91,960
Chillies	...	...	...	14,400
Bajri	...	...	...	336
Gram	...	...	...	5,092
Jowar	...	...	...	792
Total	...	...	...	736,960

Gur is thus the principal article of trade in the taluka.

Lathi—Lathi is another taluka centre, and a railway station on the Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar metre gauge railway line. Formerly, it was the capital of the State of the same name, which integrated with the Union of Saurashtra in 1948 and is famous for its wholesale trade in chillies, groundnut, wheat, *gur*, *bajri*, sesamum and *jowar*. It is particularly, famous for its trade in chillies and groundnut. Following are the details of transactions at the centre.

Name of the commodity	Transaction in Rs.
Groundnut	1,597,400
Chillies	1,015,100
Wheat	61,969
Gur	30,901
Bajri	77,341
Sesamum	12,350
Jowar	12,394
Total	2,807,455

Groundnut and chillies are the main products exported to other districts of Gujarat State.

Kodinar—The minor port of Kodinar is situated on the bank of the river Shingoda and is also the headquarters of the taluka. It is an important trading centre famous for its sugar factory worked on a co-operative basis. Groundnut, *gur*, *jowar*, *bajri*, wheat, sesamum and chillies are the chief commodities of wholesale trade at Kodinar. Following are the details of transactions at the centre in 1967 :—

Name of the commodity	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
Groundnut	57,047	6,589,935
Gur	21,562	3,742,110
Jowar	2,824	197,680
Bajri	8,999	854,905
Wheat	10,651	221,781
Chillies	192	48,000
Udid	15	1,800
Sesamum	11,290	191,930
Total	112,580	11,848,141

Groundnut and *gur* are the main agricultural produce, which, together claimed 78,609 quintals during the year Kodinar is connected by rail and road communications with Amreli and other parts of the Gujarat State.

Damnagar—Damnagar in Lathi taluka is also a centre of the wholesale trade. It is connected by a metre gauge railway running between Dhasa and Mahuva. Commodities like groundnut, wheat, *bajri*, sesamum, *jowar*, *gur*, *mug* and chillies were the chief items of wholesale trade valued as under in 1967.

Name of the commodity				Transaction in Rs.
Groundnut	...	...	...	4,241,407
Wheat	...	...	...	295,430
Sesamum	...	...	...	236,393
Bajri	..	...	...	197,442
Jowar	...	...	...	83,648
Gur	...	...	...	211,978
Chillies	...	...	...	71,425
Mug	...	...	...	14,109
Total	...	...	...	5,351,832

These transactions indicate that groundnut is the principal produce and article of trade in the taluka.

Dhari—Dhari is the taluka headquarters and is connected with Amreli through the Khijadia-Veraval section of the metre gauge railway line. Wheat, groundnut, sesamum, *bajri*, *jowar* and *mug* are the main commodities of wholesale trade and their transactions in 1967 are detailed below:-

Name of the commodity	Quantity in quintals	Value in Rs.
Wheat	18,505	1,840,692
Bajri	7,983	733,616
Groundnut	119,564	12,208,680
Sesamum	4,028	638,153
Jowar	7,473	532,451
Mug	367	36,010
Total	157,920	15,989,602

This shows that the groundnut is the chief article of trade in the taluka.

Rajula—Rajula is the headquarters of the taluka and also an important trade centre for the wholesale trade in commodities like wheat, *bajri*, sesamum, groundnut, *jowar* and *mug* valued as under during the year 1967:—

Name of the commodity					Transaction in Rs.
Wheat	...	...	...	...	507,630
Bajri	...	...	...	...	2,187,630
Sesamum	...	...	...	...	2,050,000
Groundnut	...	...	...	...	1,672,100
Jowar	...	...	...	...	120,500
Mug	...	...	...	...	41,840
Total	...	...	...	...	6,579,700

The survey of trade centres reveals that groundnut is an important article of trade in Amreli, Lathi, Kodinar, Damnagar, Dhari and Rajula, *bajri* in the centres of Amreli, Kodinar, Damnagar, Dhari and Rajula and gur in Amreli, Bagasara, Kodinar and Damnagar. Lastly, chillies have a great market in Amreli, Lathi and Kodinar. These are mostly cash crops. Thus, the district plays an important role in the trade centres not only of the Saurashtra region but of the whole State.

REGULATED MARKETS

To eliminate unfair practices in the commercial transactions of agricultural produce and to provide for better regulation of buying and selling of agricultural produce, the Bombay Cotton Markets Act, was enacted by the former Bombay Government in 1927. It was subsequently repealed and replaced by the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939. The Royal Commission on Agriculture (1927), and the Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee (1931), stressed the need for affording facilities and protection to the agricultural community in the disposal of marketable surplus of agricultural produce by establishing a chain of regulated markets at different places. "The prosperity of the agriculturists and the success of any policy of general agricultural improvement," observed the Royal Commission, "depend to a very large degree on the facilities which the agricultural community has at its disposal for marketing to the best advantage as much of its produce as surplus to its own requirements." Agriculturists are generally poor and illiterate and traders take undue advantage of the illiteracy prevalent among them. To help agriculturists in such an unfortunate position, the then Government of Bombay enacted in 1939 the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, which came into force with effect from November, 1939.

This Act was passed with the avowed object of establishing equity in the bargaining power of agriculturists and merchants, promoting mutual confidence, preventing malpractices and giving a fair deal to the farmers. With these objects in view, the legislation sought to regulate the various features of agricultural marketing in regulated markets.

The former Baroda Government also adopted the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 in the areas of the State whereunder regulated markets were established at Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar and Damnagar in the district. The State of Baroda was integrated with Bombay State in 1949. Consequent on the reorganisation of districts in Saurashtra in 1959 Lathi, Liliya, Rajula and Bagasara which formed part of Bhavnagar and Rajkot districts were included in this district. At these places regulated markets were established under the Saurashtra Agriculture Produce Markets Act, 1955, which the former Saurashtra Government had framed on the broad

outlines of the similar Bombay Act. On the formation of Gujarat State in May, 1960 the State Government also adopted the old Act of the Bombay State. It was replaced by the Gujarat Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1963. The regulated markets aforementioned are now governed by this Act.

Each regulated market is governed by a market committee constituted in accordance with the provisions of the Act and consists of 17 members—8 representing agricultural class, 4 representing trading class, 2 from co-operative societies, one nominated by local body and 2 nominees of Government. The boundaries of respective talukas are declared as market areas for the respective regulated markets. The regulated market at Lilia is the only market which has not started functioning yet.

Regulated Commodities—Commodities like groundnut (shelled and unshelled), sesamum, *bajri*, *jowar*, wheat, *mug*, *math*, *udid*, gram, paddy, (husked and unhusked), chillies, jaggery, maize and caster seeds have been regulated in these markets.

The Composition of Markets—Dalals, brokers, weighmen and *hamals* constitute the market functionaries and their strength in each market was as follows. Amreli (408), Bagasara (270), Kodinar (331), Rajula (278), Dhari (212), Damnagar (124) and Lathi (85). They held valid licences for operating in these markets.

Transactions in Regulated Markets—Statement VI.8 that follows shows the transactions in the regulated commodities in each of the markets. During the year 1967-68, 785,508 quintals of different commodities were sold in these markets. Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar, Damnagar and Rajula markets are reported to have large transactions; those in groundnut, wheat, jaggery and *bajri* are the highest. Their respective transactions in order were 438,159 quintals, 83,819 quintals, 70,093 quintals and 67,968 quintals. Of these groundnut is the most important as the transactions exceeded 50 per cent of the total turnover in 1967-68.

FACILITIES

The markets at Amreli, Damnagar and Dhari have been provided with godowns owned by the respective market committees. Similarly co-operative societies in the district have also provided storage facilities by constructing godowns at Amerli, Dhari and Rajula besides 80 other godowns owned by them in villages in the district. The prices prevailing in the Amreli market are broadcast daily by the All India Radio, Rajkot. These are also published in newspapers. Rest of the market committees display prices on the black-boards kept in the respective market yards for the facility of buyers and sellers.

STATEMENT VI.8

Transactions in Regulated Markets, 1967-68

(QUANTITY IN QUINTALS)

Commodity/Market	Amreli	Dhari	Rajula	Bagasara	Damnagar	Lathi	Kodinar	Total
Groundnut	188,538	119,564	16,721	—	38,540	17,749	57,047	438,159
Sesamum	2,372	4,028	15,000	..	1,258	..	11,290	33,948
Bajri	24,481	7,987	24,307	..	2,194	—	8,999	67,968
Jowar	4,219	7,473	2,170	..	1,418	—	2,824	18,104
Wheat	45,283	18,505	6,426	..	2,954	—	10,651	83,819
Gram	19,531	..	..	..	..	..	—	19,531
Paddy	3,853	2,376		.	..	..	..	6,229
Chillies	..	.	.	..	1,515	4,862	..	6,377
Jaggary	5,171	10 063	..	32,219	1,078	..	21,562	70,093
Maize	3,853	.	..	.	.	..	..	3,853
Other	2,825	2,250	824	1,122	23,710	5,776	920	37,427
Total	300,126	172,246	65,448	33,341	72,667	28,387	113,293	785,508

Source : The Assistant District Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Amreli.

Retail Trade—Retail trade is carried on by a large number of establishments located in the various towns and villages in the district, which cater to the needs of their respective localities. Their stock-in-trade is limited and generally depends upon their financial condition and local demand. It is rapidly replenished, as and when the old stocks are sold out. Whereas the capacity of retailers in rural and semi-urban areas for keeping large stocks of goods is, in most cases, limited, they maintain stocks sufficient for their normal sales, but their counterparts in cities and towns, because of their better financial position, are able to keep stocks in large quantities. Retailers obtain their goods on credit from the wholesalers and make payment of bills during the specified time-limit, on the expiry of which interest becomes chargeable. The brisk season for retail trade generally lasts from October to June, as July to September being monsoon months are comparatively dull, when celebration of social functions like marriage is generally avoided. Shops selling *pan*, *bidi*, tobacco, etc., normally carry on business throughout the year and sales are reported to be brisk on festivals and on holidays. Transactions in retail trade particularly reach the peak during such festivals as Holi, Dassera, Diwali and marriage season. Retail sales are usually on cash basis, but where customers are well acquainted with the traders, running accounts are also opened and settled periodically.

According to the data furnished by the 1961 Census, 9,819 persons were engaged in retail trade in the district. Of these, 4,785 were from towns and the rest from villages. Retail trading in cereals, pulses, fruits, sugar, spices, oil, fish, dairy products, foodstuffs, sweetmeats, condiments and spices, cakes, biscuits, etc., employed 4,360 workers, trading in fibres, yarns, dhoti, ready-made garments of cotton, wool, silk, nylon, terylene, etc., 998 and trade in unspecified goods 2,190. The Census data further show that among the retailers, 1,897 persons were employers, 1,060 employees, 3,434 single workers and 3,428 family members of those employed in retail trade.

Retail trade is generally distributed in the following groups:—

(i) grocery shops selling cereals, pulses, spices, *gur*, groundnut and sesamum oil, *ghee*, tea, coffee, condiments, dry fruits, baking soda, menthol crystals, saffron, catechu, *agarbatti*, etc.,

(ii) *pan-bidi* and tobacco shops, which are generally one-man establishments, selling *pan* (betal leaves), *bidi*, cigarettes, cigars, chewing tobacco, betel-nuts, catechu, menthol crystals, wax candles, match-boxes and aerated waters,

(iii) cloth and hosiery shops which deal in all kinds of textiles, cotton, woollen, silk, nylon, and other finer varieties of textiles such as terylene, etc., having a wide range of clothing such as shirtings, coating, *sarees*, *dhotis*, *malmal*, *chhint*, voiles and hosiery articles of all

sorts and varieties, (iv) fuel and charcoal shops, (v) stationery and cutlery shops, (vi) fruits and vegetables shops, (vii) shops selling household utensils of brass, copper, aluminium, German Silver and stainless steel, (viii) hardware and building materials, (ix) chemists, (x) sweetmeat and *farsan* shops and (xi) leather goods and footwear.

Retail marketing centres are situated in almost all urban areas. As the population has increased and communications made easy, retail shops have sprung up in rural areas also. In the urban areas, wholesale trade centres also function as retail marketing centres, important among them being Amreli, Dhari, Lathi, Rajula, Kodinar, Vadia and Bagasara.

One of the major developments of modern times is the organisation of co-operative purchase and sales unions which undertake substantial retail sales of foodgrains, seeds, fertilisers, agricultural implements, sugar, salt and other articles at fair prices and compete with the traditional retail traders whose monopolistic position has been greatly affected by the increasing influence of co-operative purchase and sales unions. There are taluka purchase and sales unions in all the talukas/mahals of the district. The aggregate value of goods sold by them amounted to Rs. 21.44 lakhs in 1967-68.

CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

In order to check the rise in prices of consumer goods, a number of consumers' stores have been opened in the district to supply to consumers such articles as sugar, soap, foodgrains, tea, edible oils, etc., at fair and reasonable prices. In the Amreli district, there are 17 primary consumers' co-operative stores of which one is in the Amreli town and the remaining in other towns of the district. The figures given below indicate the development of the stores :—

Particulars	1966-67	1967-68
No. of stores	17	17
Membership	1,370	1,399
Share capital (Rs.)	71,510	74,940
Working capital (Rs.)	239,840	218,410
Value of consumer goods sold (Rs)	2,730,060	2,481,990

THE GUJARAT STATE WAREHOUSING CORPORATION

As a result of the bifurcation of the Bombay State Warehousing Corporation, the Gujarat State Warehousing Corporation was set up in December, 1960 to provide (i) facilities of scientific storage for agricultural produce, (ii) easy credit to the producers in the State. The Corporation,

however, started working from February, 1961, with an authorised capital of Rs. 2 crores. It purchases land and constructs godowns and lends them on hire for the storage by merchants, traders, etc. The corporation has constructed its own godown in the market yard of the Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Amreli.

Fair Price Shops

On account of the exigencies of the Second World War, there was an abnormal rise in the prices of essential commodities like cereals, pulses, cloth, sugar, *gur*, kerosene, etc. The former Baroda State had, therefore, controlled the supply of these commodities by introducing statutory rationing regulating the distribution of consumers' goods, prohibiting hoarding, profiteering, etc., by issuing necessary orders in this behalf. Foodgrains were distributed through State authorised shops. The Civil Supplies Department was reorganised. The non-official representation in the Civil Supplies and Savings Committees was enlarged with a view to reducing the complaints of the public. In the districts, Government controlled and aided agencies and private individuals ran cheap grain and fair price shops for the distribution of controlled foodgrains.

The State also took steps to put an effective check on black-marketing and hoarding of consumer goods. Any breach of the regulation was punishable under the law.

To check the spiral of rising prices, Government has opened fair price shops for selling essential commodities at fair and reasonable rates to the persons in lower income groups, *i. e.*, middle and economically backward sections of the society. Foodgrains are now distributed on family ration cards, which are registered with fair price shops authorised by Government. Fair price shops numbering 271 in the district are engaged in the distribution of controlled commodities. The total quantity of wheat, both fine and other varieties, *bajri* and rice sold through these shops amounted to 167,775 quintals valued approximately at Rs. 10,224,232 in 1967-68.

Fairs

In the district, fairs are generally associated with important deities and religious festivals and attract people from all strata of society. They afford ample opportunities for social, cultural and religious contacts. Formerly, apart from their religious significance, they served as market-places for the village people to purchase consumer goods. But their economic importance in modern times is, however, on the decline, owing to the availability of commodities of daily needs in the village or town itself. Quick mode of transport, spread of education, decreasing influence of religion and alternative modes of recreation and entertainment at home

have made fairs less popular and attractive than they were before. Articles such as sweets, *farsan*, toys, tea, coffee, cold-drinks and aerated waters, cutlery, vegetables, fruits, *pan-bidi* and cigarettes, bangles, hosiery, shoes and *chappals* and earthen wares are sold at these fairs. Cultural activities include *garbas*, *bhajans*, *dandia-ras*, religious discourses, agricultural exhibitions, etc. *Bhajan mandlis* by singing devotional songs in praise of deities also attract large numbers.

Of the 27 fairs held in the district at different places and at different times of the year, the following important ones deserve mention in view of large number of persons participating in them:—

(1) Bhidbhanjan Mahadev fair, Juna Vaghania,
(2) Brahma Kund fair, Babra,
(3) Janmashtami fair, Dhareshwar, Rajula,
(4) Bhurakhia Hanuman fair, Hanuman Jayanti, Bhurakhia,
(5) Ashagora Pir Urs, Lathi,
(6) Chaitri Hanuman Jayanti fair, Pipavav,
(7) Bhadarvi Amas fair, Pipavav, and
(8) Rudreshwar Mahadev fair, Ghantwad.

A list of fairs showing details about the occasions, places where held, congregation, activities, communication and transport facilities and castes and communities participating in these fairs is given at the end of the chapter.

From the Statement VI 9 it will appear that 18 fairs relate to the deities and 9 to festivals. The highest number of fairs (six) are held in the Kodinar taluka and the lowest in Kunkavav-Vadia taluka (one). No fairs are organised in the Dhari taluka and Khambha mahal.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The Gazetteer of the former Baroda State published in 1923 makes the following observations about the weights and measures in force in the State[1] —

"Each district had one time its own local weights and measures. This was naturally detrimental to the interests both of merchants and consumers. From 1885 to 1904, several circulars and orders were issued regulating the weights and measures and in later years, these were revised and embodied into special rules laying down a uniform system of weights and measures. The *sher* of 40 rupees weight of 180 grams each was laid

1 DESAI G. H., and CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State.*, Vol. I, (1923), pp. 392-394

down as unit. 40 *shers* make a maund. The *sher* is sub-divided into *achher*, half a *sher* and *pavsher*, quarter *sher;* a *pavsher* is sub-divided into two *navtanks* and a *navtank* into two *adhols*. An *adhol* equals an ounce of the weight of two and a half rupees. As a measure of length the *gaj* of 24 inches was taken as the unit. From the operation of these rules, gold and silver are exempted." Further on it states: "Gold and silver are weighed throughout the territory according to the following scale:—

3 *ratis* = 1 *val*
16 *vals* = 1 *gadiana*
2 *gadiana* or 32 *vals* = 1 *tola*

"Cotton in its raw state or *kapas* is measured by the *bhar* of 24 *mans* and cleaned cotton by the *khandi* of 20 *mans*. The proportion of cotton to raw cotton is ⅓ of lint to ⅔ of seed, that is 2½ *bhars* or 24 hundred lbs., of uncleaned cotton will yield one *khandi* or 800 pounds of cleaned cotton."

"Milk is sold either by capacity or weight. The measures of capacity used are ladle or a *palo* and set of metal bowls or *lotas*, serving as a quarter, half, a one and a two *shers* measures capacity. Castor oil or *divel* used for burning and sweet oil or *tel* used for cooking are sold by weight for quantities of less than 5 *shers*."

"Cloth is measured by the yard or by the *gaj* according to the wish of the purchaser. Timber is measured by the *gaj*. In such earth work as digging ponds, reservoirs, the unit of measurement is called *chokdi*. This is ten feet long, ten feet broad and ten feet deep or one hundred cubic feet. The local land measure is the *bigha* which is divided into sixteen parts called *vasa*, each *vasa* divided into 20 *visvasi* 1.7 *bighas* equal 1 acre."

The Bombay Weights and Measures Act of 1938 was enforced in the Baroda territory after its merger into the Bombay State This Act was amended in 1958 to extend its provisons to the areas of Saurashtra, Kutch, Vidarbha and Marathawada which were included to form the bilingual Bombay State. Experience had shown that owing to the difficulties of conversion into various units, the prevalence of different types of weights and measures used in the States of the Indian Union prevented the smooth flow of the internal and external trade While the major part of the world had long evolved a much simplified system of weights and measures, there was no uniformity in the system followed in the country *vis-a-vis* foreign countries. It thus created certain complications in commercial transactions with other parts of the country and the world. The Government of India, therefore, decided to adopt the decimal system known as the 'Metric System of Weights and Measures' and introduce it throughout the

country on a uniform basis with a view to eliminating the difficulties encountered in calculation and conversion. Under this system, the weight measures and the linear measures have been reduced to a multiple of ten. In Gujarat, the use of the metric measures has been made compulsory from April, 1962 and its implementation has been entrusted to the State Directorate of Industries.

The salient features of the system are mentioned below :—

(i) Length is measured in metres instead of in yards,
1 metre = 1·09 yards.

(ii) Distance is measured in kilometres instead of in miles.
1 km. = 0·62 miles.

(iii) Weight is to be drawn into kilograms instead of in pounds (*lbs.*) or seer,

1 kg.=2·2 lbs. or 1.07 seer.
and quintal instead of a maund, 1 quintal = 5·38 mds. (*kutcha*)

(iv) Area of the land is now measured in hectares instead of in acres,
1 hectare = 2·47 acres.

(v) *Tola* weights have been replaced by gram. One gram which is one-thousandth part of a kilogram is equal to 0·086 *tolas*.

(vi) Unit for valuable stones is carat,
One carat which is one-fifth of the gram equals 0·017 *tolas*.

STATEMENTS

STATEMENT VI.9

Fairs, their Occasion, Site, Time, Congregation and other Particulars

Sl No 1	Name/Occasion 2	Place where held 3	Date of fair 4	Estimated congregation 5	Activities 6	(i) Nearest Railway Station. (ii) Bus Service 7	Castes/ communities participating 8	Remarks 9
	AMRELI TALUKA							
1	Shitla Mata fair, Shitla Saptami	Vankia	Shravan Vad 7	800-900	Ras, garbas, bhajans	Rly. Stn.	Hindus	Worship of Shitla Mata. Organised by Gram Panchayat. Attended by people from Babapur, Taravda, Sarambhada, Medi, Saji-avader, Devrajia, Pithvajai, Bhandaria villages.
2	Jal-jhilani Agiarash	Mota Gokharvala	Bhadrapad Sud 11	600-700	Ras, bhajans	Vankia, 6 ms. Bus	Hindus	The idol of Krishna is bathed in Shetrunji river and then worshipped and brought back in a procession to the village. Organised by Gram Panchayat. The fair was started 60 years ago Attended by people from surrounding villages such as Sonaria, Lapalia, Chandgadh.
3	Ram Navmi	Mota Gokharvala	Chaitra Sud 9	300	Ras	Vankia, 6 ms Bus	All communities	The idol of Rama and Swaminarayan are taken in procession to Shetrunji river, bathed and then brought back to the village. Limited to the village.
4	Janmashtami	Mota Gokharvala	Shravan Vad 8	300	Ras	Vankia, 6 ms. Bus	All communities	Limited to the village.

STATEMENT VI.9—*contd.*

5	Shitla Mata fair, Shitla Saptami	Mota Gokharvala	Sharavan Vad 7	300	Ras	Vankia, 6 ms Bus	All communities	Limited to the village.
	KUNKAVAV-VADIA TALUKA							
6	Bhidbhanjan Mahadev fair	Juna Vaghania	Last Monday of Shravan	1,000-1,500	Ras	Rly. Stn. Bus	Hindus	Temple of Bhidbhanjan Mahadev. Attended by people from surrounding villages.
	BABRA TALUKA							
7	Brahma Kund fair	Babra	Shravan Vad 15 (Amas)	2,000	15 stalls, hawkers of tea, estables, etc.	Chital, 4 ms. Bus	Brahmin, Bania, Kanbi, Koli	Temple of Nilkanth Mahadev and Brahma Kund According to legend Babra was named after Babhruvahan, son of Arjun, who was ruling here. Pandvas visited Babra and worshipped Nilkanth Mahadev. The Kund was, therefore, known as Pandav Kund or Panch Kund. A Muslim Sultan destroyed the *linga* but the temple was later renovated by the ruler of Santhali, who, pursuant to a dream, tried to search out the place where his cow daily poured milk. The Brahmins, entrusted with the worship gave the name Brahma Kund to the old Kund. Organised by the Pujari. Attended by people from 10 neighbouring villages.

STATEMENT VI.9—*contd.*

Sl. No. 1	Name/Occasion 2	Place where held 3	Date of fair 4	Estimated congregation 5	Activities 6	(i) Nearest Railway Station. (ii) Bus Service 7	Castes/communities participating 8	Remarks 9
8	Janmashtami	Babra	Shravan Vad 8	1,000		Chital, 4 ms. Bus	Hindus	At the Mahadev temple
9	Gangeshwer Mahadev fair, Shitla Saptami, Janmashtami	Garni	Shravan Vad 7-8	500		Chital, 16 ms.	Hindus	
	LATHI TALUKA							
10	Bhurakhia Hanuman fair, Hanuman Jayanti	Bhurakhia	Chaitra Sud 15	2,000		Lathi, 4 ms.		
11	Ashagora Pir Urs	Lathi	Day following Ramzan Id	2,000		Rly. Stn.		Worship of Ashagora Pir
	LILIA MAHAL							
12	Lilagara Mahadev fair, Janmashtami	Lilia	Shravan Vad 8	700		Rly. Stn		
13	Lilagara Mahadev fair	Lilia	Jyeshtha Sud 11	700		Rly. Stn.		
14	Antalia Mahadev fair, Janmashtami	Antalia	Shravan Vad 8	700		Lilia, 4 ms.		
15	Antalia Mahadev fair	Antalia	Jyeshtha Sud 11	700		Lilia, 4 ms.		

STATEMENT VI.9—*contd.*

	RAJULA MAHAL							
16	Chaitri Punam, Hunuman Jayanti	Pipavav	Chaitra Sud 15	3,000	Ras mandlis, religious discourses on Ramayan. 15-18 stalls	Victor, 1 ml.	Brahmin, Bania Ahir, Koli, Kanbi	Organised by Mahant. Attended by people from Rajula, Mahuva and Jafrabad area.
17	Janmashtami	Dhareshvar	Shravan Vad 8	3,500		Rajula, Road 6 ms. Bus	Brahmin, Kathi, Kanabi, Koli, Pancholi, Suthar, Luhar, Bharvad, Harijan	
18	Bhadarvi Amas	Pipavav	Shravan Vad 15 (Amas)	3,000	Agricultural exhibition	Victor, 1 ml.	Hindus	Worship of Shiva. Attended by people from Rajula, Mahuva and Jafrabad.
	JAFRABAD MAHAL							
19	Bhadarvi Amas	Varahswarup	Shravan Vad 15 (Amas)	800-1,000	Ras, Bhajans. 3-4 stalls	Rajula, 16 ms.	All communities	In honour of Varah, third incarnation of God Vishnu. Attended by people from 8-10 neighbouring villages.
20	Janmashtami	Vadhera	Shravan Vad 8	700-800	Ras, bhajans, 2-3 stalls of toys, household articles	Rajula, 18 ms.	All communities	Attended by people from 6-8 villages.
21	Ratneshwer Mahadev fair	Rohisa	Shravan Vad 15 (Amas)	400-500	Ras, Garba	Una, 13 ms	Hindus	Attended by people from 3-4 surrounding villages.

STATEMENT VI 9—*contd*

Sl. No. 1	Name/Occasion 2	Place where held 3	Date of fair 4	Estimated congregation 5	Activities 6	(i) Nearest Railway Station (ii) Bus Service 7	Castes communities participating 8	Remarks 9
	KODINAR TALUKA							
22	Rudreshwer Mahadev fair	Ghantvad	Shravan Vad 15 (Amas)	1,000-1,500	Ras, bhajans, stalls of miscellaneous articles	Rly Stn. Bus	Hindus	Attended by people from surrounding 10-15 villages.
23	Randal Mata fair	Chhara	Shravan Vad 7	500-700	Dandia-ras, bhajans, Stalls of miscellaneous articles	Kodinar. 4 ms Bus	Hindus	Attended by people from 5 miles area
24	Balanath Mahadev fair, Shitla Saptami	Sarakhdi	Shravan Vad 7	500-700	Ras mandlis, bhajans Stalls of miscellaneous articles	Kodinar, 6 ms, Bus	Hindus	Attended by people from 5 miles area.
25	Akhatrij (Akshay Tritiya)	Muldwarka	Vaishakh Sud 3	500-700	Ras, garbas. Stalls of miscellaneous articles	Kodinar, 4 ms. Bus	All communities	Worship of Ranchhodrai. Attended by people from 5-7 miles area.
26	Majevadi fair	Mitiaj	Bhadrapad Sud 2	500-700	Bhajans, ras, garbas. Stalls of sweets, food-grains, miscellaneous articles	Kodinar. 3 ms. Bus	Hindus	Worship of Hanuman. Limited to 5 miles area.
27	Adnath fair	Adpukar	Shravan Vad 15 (Amas)	500-600	Bhajans. Stalls of miscellaneous articles	Haramadia, 6 ms Bus	Hindus	Worship of Shiva. Limited to 5 miles area.

Source : Census of India 1961, Vol V, *Fairs and Festivals*, Part VII-B, pp. 29-31.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX

Important Coins from 1952-53

Sl. No. 1	Antiquity (in No) 2	Metal 3	Weight- (in grs). 4	Dynasty 5	King 6	Date 7
1	91	Silver	32	Western Kshatrapa	Viradaman s/o Damasena II	1st half of 3rd cent. A D.
2	112	Copper, coated with silver	25	do	Damajadasri III (?)	2nd half of 3rd cent A D
3	223	do	18	do	do	do
4	211	Copper	20	Not known	Not known	Beginning of the 1st cent A D
5	P/53	Copper	18	..		1st cent B C.
6	6 52	Copper	57	Ujjayini	..	1st cent B C.
7	255	Lead	21	Western Kshatrapa	Svami Rudra-sena III	Saka (200) (80)
8	P 31	Copper	..	Ujjayini	..	1st cent A. D
9	225	Lead	25	Western Kshatrapa	Svami Rudra-sena II (s178-196)	Saka (100) (80)X
10	P 32	Potin	15 6	do	Svami Rudrasena I	Saka (100) (40) (8)
11	263 54	Copper	13	do	Not known	Saka (100) XX

Source :

Excavations at Amreli, Bulletin No XVIII, Museum and Picture Gallery, Baroda, (1966), pp 84-85

I

Excavations at Amreli

Language and alphabet 8	Measurement 9	Obverse 10	Reverse 11
Mixed Sanskrit and Prakrit; Brahmi	Round 5 cms. dia.	Ornamental border of corrupt greek legend: bust of king to right to the usual closefitting cap. Date behind head not clear.	Pellet border, hill of 3 peaks surmounted by crescent; right star of 7 dots; legends:ra (j) no Mahakshatra (Pasa) D (a) mas (e) nasa putrasa rajnah Kshatrapasa Virad (amnah).
do	do	Bust of King to right	Pellet border; hill of 3 peaks faintly visible; damaged; legend not clear
do	do	do	Pellet border, hill of 3 peaks surmounted by crescent, right star of 7 dots, left crescent; wavy line below; legend rajno Maha Kshatrapasa...maja.
Nil	Square 4X 4 cm.	Punch-marked; upper part of caduceus.	Blank
Nil	Rectangular 4X·3 cm	Three arrows shooting from a circle with dot	Defaced
Nil	Rectangular 68X·55 cm.	In a peculiar border, three symbols-one of which looks like an arrow.	Swastika damaged
Nil	Square 35X·35 cm.	Humped-bull standing right	Hill of 3 peaks with a wavy line below· beneath date (200) (80) X Last dight not visible
Nil		Standing man	Circle with a stroke in a square.
Nil	Rectangular .45X 49 cm.	In a square of dots, humped bull standing to right	Hill of 3 peaks with a wavy line below· beneath date (100) (80) X (The first symbol does not have a stroke).
Nil	Round 5 cm	Standing elephant(?) rt	Pellet border, Hill of 3 peaks surmounted by 2 crescents; wavy line below; Date X (40) (8)
Nil	Round	Defaced	Date (100) X X

APPENDIX II

COINS (1952-53)

Sl. No. 1	Metal 2	Dynasty 3	King 4	Date 5	Shape 6	Remarks 7
1.	Local	Western Kshatrapa	..	..	Square	Obv. Humped bull Rev. Defaced
2.	Lead	do		..	do	Defaced
3.	Copper	do		.	Round	do
4.	do	do	.	.	do	do
5.	do	do	..		do	Obv. Elephant standing to rt Rev Defaced
6.	do	do	..	.	do	Defaced
7.	Lead	do	.	..	Square	do
8.	do	do	.	..	do	do
9.	do	do	..	.	do	do
10.	Copper	do			Round	do
11.	do	do	..	.	do	do
12.	Lead	do			Square	do
13.	do	do			do	do
14.	do	do			do	do
15.	do	do	--	--	do	do
16	Copper	do			Round	do
17	Lead	do			Square	do
18	Copper	do		.	Round	do
19	do	do			do	do
20	Lead	do	Svami Rudrasena III	Saka (200) (80)	Square .5 cm	Obv Humped bull standing to rt Rev Hill of 3 peaks, wavy line below Date (200) (80) (4)
21	Copper	do			Round	Defaced
22	do	do		.	do	do
23	do	do			do	do
24.	Lead	do			Square	do

APPENDIX II—*contd.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Lead	Western Kshatrapa	..	..	Squre	Obv. Defaced, Hill of 3 peaks, star; wavy line below.
26.	Copper	do	..	X(80)X	Round	Obv. Defaced. Rev. Date X(') X.
27.	Lead	do	..	.	Square	Defaced
28.	do	do	..	.	do	do
29.	do	do	..	..	do	do
30	do	do	..	..	Round	do
31.	Copper	do		..	do	do
32.	do	do	.	..	do	do
33.	Lead	do	..	..	Square	do
34.	Copper	do	.	..	Round	Obv. Elephant standing to rt. Rev. Defaced
35.	do	do	..	..	do	do

Source :
Excavations at Amreli, Bulletin No. XVIII, Museum and Picture Gallery, Baroda, 1966, pp. 86-88.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

OLD-TIME TRADE ROUTES

Some idea about the old trade routes and means of conveyance in the district can be had from the old *Kathiawar Gazetteer*, compiled as far back as 1884. Much of the early trade and traffic of the district was carried on by means of water communication and the rest by means of laden bullocks, horses, camels, and hired labourers. Whatever roads existed were unsafe and difficult to traverse and were trafficable only in fair season. The relevant extract from the said Gazetteer describes the condition of roads in the peninsular Gujarat of which Amreli district formed part, in the following terms :

> "Upto 1865, there were no made roads in the province. During the rainy season (June-October) when the ports were closed and the rivers flooded, outside dealings were at a standstill and there was little movement within the province. Tracks of wheeled vehicles usually ran along the gravelly beds of small streams as the soil was there hardest and the friction least, but at the best of times, the passage of the larger streams was a grievous hindrance. In fair weather it was, and in parts it still is, no uncommon sight to see a train of laden carts halted at the bank of river, and cattle of three or four carts formed into a team to drag one across: or when the cart was by itself taken across empty and filled on the opposite bank, the load being carried over bit by bit on men's head."[1]

Describing the trade routes it observes, "In old times, the chief trade routes in the province followed the coast from Gogha south-west to Somnath and thence north-west to Dwarka. The chief land routes were those joining the peninsula with the main land. Of these, the most frequented passed by Jhinjhuwada and Patdi to Wadhwan and by Viramgam to Wadhwan. The routes by Dholka and Dhandhuka to Wadhwan and Valabhi were also in common use. There seems also to have been a road joining Valabhi with Junagadh and Vanthali. But as most of this road passed through forest and thinly peopled country, the trade route followed the coast line.. In Muhammadan times, especially under the imperial viceroys (1573-1700), the interior of the peninsula became populous, routes increased, and a road was opened from Wadhwan direct to Dwarka by Nawanagar and Khambhalia Before the Rajkot-Wadhwan road was made, the old route from Rajkot to Wadhwan passed by Sanosara, Ghiawad, Mahika, Than, Umarda and Muli, and before the extension of railway to

1. Campbell J M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar* (1884), p. 220

Wadhwan, the road from Wadhwan to Ahmedabad passed by Talsana, Shahpur, Sanand and Sarkhej.... The old trade route from Nawanagar to Gujarat and Malva was by Dhrol, Tankara, Morvi, Halvad, Dhrangadhra, and Viramgam."[1]

The former Baroda State established an Engineering Department on modern lines in 1876. In 1891, this department was reorganised and Executive Engineers in place of Sub-Engineers were placed in each Prant of the State. This helped the systematic planning of road construction in the district.

As a famine relief measure, construction of roads was undertaken on a large scale in the district during the great famine of 1899-1900 and in the subsequent years of scarcity. Construction of roads in the district was facilitated on account of the availability of stones from the neighbouring hills. By the end of 1919-20, there were in the district nearly 60 roads with a total length of 642 kms., of which 451 kms., had metalled surface and the rest had unmetalled surface. As in other princely States in the peninsula, progress in the construction of roads was not adequate till Independence. Under the Five Year Plans, the road construction has been assigned priority.

At the time of launching of the First Five Year Plan (1951-56), the total length of the roads in the district was 866 kms. Considerable funds were earmarked for the construction and repairs of the roads in the successive Plans. As a result of this, the total length of the roads increased from 866 kms. to 1,266 kms. by the end of Second Plan Even with this expansion, the roads fell short of the target fixed for the district under the Nagpur Plan by nearly 13 per cent In 1963, the Panchayati Raj was introduced in the State and the roads below the category of the State Highways (Major District Roads, Other District Roads and Village Roads) were transferred to the District Panchayat. This also helped accelarate the growth of road building activities By 1967-68, the total length of the roads in the district reached 1,360 kms., of which 1,140 kms., were maintained by the District Panchayat and the remaining 220 kms., by the State Public Works Department as shown below.—

Category	Length in kms. (as on 31st March, 1968)
National Highways	Nil
State Highways	220 00
Major District Roads	541 82
Other District Roads	339 35
Village Roads	258 83
Total	1,360.00

1. Campbell J M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar* (1884), p.220.

Thus, it could be seen that even as late as 1968, the target of construction of roads was not fully achieved. To meet this deficiency, the State Government has prepared a '20—Year Road Development Plan (1961-81)', whereunder the district will have a total of 2,458 kms., of roads by the end of the Plan in 1981.

MUNICIPAL ROADS—Amreli, the district headquarters, is the only municipal town in the district. The total length of roads maintained by it was 51·06 kms., at the end of December, 1968. Of these 33·48 kms., had metalled surface and remaining unmetalled.

Vehicles and Conveyances

The bullock cart was the main means of transport before the mechanisation of the mode of conveyance. Despite the extension of railways and expansion of road traffic for passengers and goods, the bullock cart still retains much of its former importance and usefulness in the village economy which is primarily agricultural This is clearly extension of railways and expansion of road traffic for passengers and goods, bullock carts in the district, the highest number being found in the Lathi taluka followed by the Kodinar and Vadia talukas and the lowest in Khambha Mahal:—

Bullock carts, (Livestock Census, 1966)

Sl No.	Taluka/Mahal	No of bullock carts
1.	Amreli	5,400
2	Babra	3,863
3.	Dhari	4,851
4	Jafrabad	1,447
5	Khambha	289
6.	Kodinar	7,322
7.	Lathi	7,430
8	Lilia	3,407
9	Rajula	3,481
10	Vadia	7,135
	Total	44,625

Source :

Collector, Amreli

OTHER VEHICLES.—Other vehicles in the district are motor-cycles, motor cars, taxis, trucks, ambulance cars, tractors, trailers, etc. The strength as on 31st March, 1968 was as under :—

Name of vehicles	Number
Motor cycles	51
Motor cars	72
Taxis	4
Public carriers	412
Ambulance car	1
Tractors	76
Trailers	54
Others	3
Total	673

Source :
Assistant Regional Transport Officer, Bhavnagar.

The above statistics show that the largest number of vehicles are under the category of public carriers (412). This is because there are no adequate railway transport facilities for goods in the district. After public carriers, the largest number of vehicles is tractors (76). This shows that farmers have adopted improved implements for agriculture, particularly in the sugar growing areas of Kodinar Next come motor cars (72). They might be owned by the former ruling princes, business executors and industrialists. The use of motor-cycles (51) seems to be larger because of the lack of other transport facilities to reach interior villages. There is only one ambulance car in the district. It is inadequate in view of the far-flunged areas of Jafrabad, Rajula and Kodinar.

BEASTS OF BURDEN

According to the Livestock Census, 1966 the strength of different types of beasts of burden such as bullocks, horses and ponies, mules, donkeys and camels was 130,581.

Among the beast of burden, bullocks rank first in the district followed by horses and ponies, donkeys, camels, and mules in order. This is because they are needed for pulling carts as well as ploughs. Donkeys are useful for transportation of building materials required in the construction of dams, roads and buildings. Horses, ponies and camels are used for transport

ROAD TRANSPORT

Like many other princely States in Saurashtra, the road transport system did not receive adequate attention prior to Independence in this part of the Baroda State. This was because the erstwhile rulers, who had invested large amounts in the construction of the railways in their territories, were least interested in the development of road transport which was likely to affect their railway revenues. Moreover, there were only few *pucca* roads in the peninsula on which the automobile vehicles could safely and easily ply. Only such roads, which served as feeder roads to the railways were developed After Independence, it was realised that the railways in Saurashtra had their own limitations, as large areas were not served by rail-roads. Industrial advancement and development of ports also necessitated widening and tar-surfacing (black-topping) of old roads and construction of new ones on a priority basis. To connect the far-flung villages with the important urban centres and taluka headquarters, road transport was essential for passenger and goods traffic. Thus, the road transport assumed greater importance.

At the time of Independence, road transport services in Amreli district were in the hands of numerous private operators, who carried on the business with the sole profit motive As worn-out buses were plied on roads, safety of passengers was largely imperilled. As the Baroda State received a fixed rental from private operators, it did not interest itself much in construction of new roads, maintenance of old ones, introduction of new buses and provision of amenities to the passengers. As a result, the transport system sufferred from uneconomic competition and over-crowding in the operating vehicles.

To free the transport system from these evils, Government decided to nationalise the passenger road transport in stages. After the merger of the Baroda State into the Bombay State in 1949, the road transport in the Amreli district was placed under the jurisdiction of the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation in the year 1949. By the end of 1955-56, all the major routes in Dhari taluka, Khamba mahal and Damnagar taluka were taken over by the Corporation. In 1956-57, further 22 routes, with a route mileage of 814·24 kms., were taken over. This Corporation established a depot at Amreli in 1956, from where 22 vehicles plied on 31 routes in and outside the district.

Further, the buses of the Kundla Division Motor Transport Co-operative Society, Ltd., Kundla, and the Saurashtra State Road Transport Corporation established in 1956 served some villages and towns in this district. As a result, the total route mileage operated through Amreli depot practically doubled by its route length to 1,654.40 kms., in 1958-59.

After the formation of Gujarat State, the Road Transport Corporations of Saurashtra and Kutch areas were dissolved and a single Corporation for the whole State of Gujarat was established in May, 1960 under the name of the Gujarat State Road Transport Corporation with headquarters at Ahmedabad. This Corporation comprises the Gujarat area of the former Bombay State and the areas operated by the Saurashtra and Kutch States' Road Transport Corporations. The Corporation has established three divisions in Saurashtra, one each at Rajkot, Junagadh and Bhavnagar. The Amreli district has been placed under the jurisdiction of the Bhavnagar Division.

There are two depots at Amreli and Bagasara in the district. The former maintains 46 vehicles and the latter 26. Till March, 1968, Amreli district was served by 165 routes covering a distance of 11,337 kms. The number of passengers travelled on an average amounted to 20,915 per day per trip in the month of March, 1968. Amreli is well connected with all the taluka headquarters in the district on the one hand and with other district headquarters like Junagadh, Bhavnagar, Rajkot, etc., on the other Besides, a direct bus service is also operated between Amreli and Ahmedabad. Of the 609 villages/towns in the district, 428 villages or 70 per cent are directly served by the State Transport buses.

The remaining villages (181) are not very far from the bus-stop, as will be seen from the data given below:—

93 villages are within 3 kms.
88 villages are beyond 3 kms., but within 5 kms.

There are three temporary bus-stations at Amreli, Dhari and Kodinar and ten pick-up sheds at other places in the district. There are two rest rooms, one each at Amreli and Bagasara for the staff of the Corporation to relax when not on duty.

A Staff Welfare Committee functions at the divisional headquarters, Bhavnagar, which carries on various welfare activities for the benefit of employees. It provides reading room, libraries, sports, recreation activities, etc. Moreover, hot water bags, thermometer, etc., are also supplied for use of the staff members. A co-operative thrift and credit society, which was started from February, 1969, at the headquarters also provides loan advances to members. A dispensary is also run at the depot in Amreli which attends to minor ailments of employees and members of their families. A family planning centre is also attached to the dispensary.

RAILWAYS

Historical Background—Compared to the other areas of the former Baroda State, the construction of the railways started a little latter in the

Amreli Prant, because of its remoteness from the State capital, Baroda. This was also due to the fact that this part of the possession of the Gaekwar was surrounded by native States in Kathiawar and it was but natural that they had jurisdictional disputes with the State of Baroda in exercise of sovereign rights over the disputed territory. Moreover, the approval for construction of the railway lines in this area had to be obtained from the British Government as the paramount power.

The Baroda Ruler proposed to construct the railway line from Khijadia to Amreli and thence to Chalala in 1889. He was very keen to retain jurisdiction over the railway line after construction. The Resident, therefore, expressed his inability to recommend the project to the Government of India. Thus the proposal fell through.

An alternative plan to construct a mono-rail between Amreli and Chital on the Dhasa-Jetalsar section of the Gondal-Porbandar railway to be worked by animal power also did not materialise, as the Jetpur shareholders comprising the rulers of Jetpur, Junagadh, Gondal and Rajkot put forth impossible conditions. Under the circumstances, it was difficult for the Baroda State to proceed with the construction of the railways in the Amreli district. In 1904, the Baroda ruler again proposed to construct the Khijadia-Amreli-Chalala railway on the metre gauge and reluctantly agreed to the proposal of the Government of India to cede criminal and civil jurisdiction thereon, as a special case and on the understanding that the Baroda Government would be allowed the benefit of any future change in policy. The construction of the Khijadia-Chalala railway with a length of 59.55 kms., was sanctioned in December, 1908 and the line opened to traffic by stages as under —

(i) Khijadia to Gavadka, 26·23 kms., (1913)

(ii) Gavadka to Chalala, 14·62 kms., (1914)

(iii) Chalala to Dhari, 18·70 kms. (1916)

The main railway lines constructed by the Baroda State in Amreli Prant were: (1) the section between Kuranga and Okha with a length of nearly 60 kms., (2) between Khijadia and Dhari 60 kms., in length and (3) the Prachi-Kodinar line, 26 kms., in length.

Thus the position of the railways was far from satisfactory in the district. Though no new rail lines have been laid thereafter, the district as it exists to day is fairly served by the railways. On account of reorganisation of the districts in 1959, certain areas of Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh districts have been transferred to the Amreli district and Okhamandal was integrated with the adjoining Jamnagar district. These areas

were well served by the rail routes. As a result, the total length of the railways in the district has increased from 184 kms., to 324 kms. All the railways are in meter gauge and pass through six out of ten talukas/mahals. Babra taluka and Jafrabad and Khambha mahals are without the railway facilities. Thus, the district has at present 9·85 kms., of railway lines per 100 sq. kms., and 48·50 kms., per lakh of population. The district has 44 railway stations as shown in the Statement No. VII.4.

A brief description of each of the railway lines which either pass through this district or are entirely within its boundaries is given below :

The Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar Section—This line was opened for traffic in stages between 1881 and 1889. It starts from Dhola railway station in the Bhavnagar district and enters Amreli district near the Pipalana railway station in the Lathi taluka. It runs in this district upto the Vavdi railway station after which it enters the Rajkot district at Jetpur and finally terminates at Porbandar, which is an important intermediate port and an important trade centre in the Junagadh district.

The Khijadia-Dhari-Veraval—This line was opened for traffic by stages between 1913 and 1936. However, the section between the Khijadia and Dhari was constructed by the former Baroda State and opened for traffic between 1913 and 1916. It starts from Khijadia—a junction station on the Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar railway line—and runs upto the Bhader railway station in this district. Here it crosses the boundary of this district and enters the Junagadh district at Jetalvad and finally terminates at Veraval, which is an important intermediate port in the State. Khijadia, Amreli, Gavadka and Dhari are the important stations on this line. As it links trade centres of Amreli and Dhari in the district with the Veraval port, this railway line assumes great economic significance.

Kunkavav-Derdi Section—Declared open in 1940, this line is 12 kms., long. It starts from Kunkavav, a junction on the Dhola-Porbandar metre gauge line and terminates at Derdi

The Dhasa-Rajula-Mahuva Section—This line was opened between 1911 and 1922. It starts from the Dhasa station of Gadhada taluka of Bhavnagar district and enters Amreli district near Damnagar of the Lathi taluka and runs upto Bhensavadi in this district It again enters the Bhavnagar district at Jira Road railway station of the Kundla taluka. It again traverses through the Amreli district upto Dungar and enters the Bhavnagar district at Amratvel station to reach Mahuva, which is the terminus.

This line is important as it serves two districts. It connects Rajula with Mahuva, a port in the Bhavnagar district, which has a hinterland of salt-works and stone-quarries.

The Rajula City-Victor Section—The metre gauge line was opened for traffic during 1927 and 1928 and has a length of 26 kms. It starts from Rajula city station and terminates at the port Albert Victor. It has great economic significance as it helps transhipment by rail route of salt and timber from the port Albert Victor and stones from Rajula.

The Kunkavav-Bagasara Section—This metre gauge line was opened for traffic in 1939. Its entire length of 20 kms., is within the limits of Amreli district. It passes through the Kunkavav taluka only and links two important trade centres, *viz.*, Kunkavav and Bagasara and helps transhipment of groundnut oil, handloom cloth and other local products.

The Prachi Road-Kodinar Section—This metre gauge line was constructed by the former Baroda State and was opened in 1936. It starts from the Prachi Road station in the Junagadh district, enters the Amreli district at Sandhanidhar station and terminates at Kodinar, which is a minor port and a trade centre noted for its sugar factory.

The Talala-Prachi Road-Delvada Section—This line, which formerly belonged to the Junagadh State Railways, was opened between 1920 and 1935. Harmadia of the Kodinar taluka is the only railway station within the limits of this district on this line.

To sum up, the broad facts of the railways in the district are tabulated below —

STATEMENT VII.3

Railways in Amreli District

Sl No.	Name of the Railway line	Year of construc-tions/ opening	Starting station (in the district)	Terminus (in the district)	Talukas/-mahals served
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar	1881-1891	Pipalva	Vavdi	Lathi, Amreli, Kunkavav-Vadia
2.	Khijadia-Dhari Veraval	1913-1936	Khijadia	Bhader	Amreli, Dhari
3.	Kunkavav-Derdi	1940	Kunkavav	Derdi	Kunkavav
4.	Dhasa-Rajula-Mahuva	1911-1922	Damnagar	Dungar	Lathi, Lilia, Rajula
5.	Rajula city-Victor	1927-1928	Rajula city	Albert Victor	Rajula
6	Kunkavav-Bagasara	1939	Kunkavav	Bagasara	Kunkavav
7.	Prachi Road-Kodinar	1936	Sandhani-dhar	Kodinar	Kodinar
8.	Talala-Prachi Road-Delvada	1920-1935	Harmadia	..	Kodinar

STATEMENT VII 4

Railway Stations

Sl No.	Amreli taluka	Kunkavav-Vadia taluka	Babra taluka	Lathi taluka	Lilia mahal	Dhari taluka	Khambha mahal	Rajula mahal	Jafrabad mahal	Kodinar taluka
	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station	Name of railway station
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Amreli	Bagasara	Nil	Damnagar	Bhensavadi	Bhader	Nil	Charodia	Nil	Chhachhar
2	Amreli para	Hadalakhari		Lathi	Hathigarh	Chalala		Dungar		Ghantwad
3	Chital	Kunkavav Jn.		Panchtalavda Road	Lilia Mota	Dhari		Rajula-Juni		Harmadia
4	Gavadka	Kunkavav town		Pipalva		Jhar		Rajula city		Kodinar
5.	Machiala	Khakhariya						Vavera		Sandhanidhar
6	Sajiavadar	Lunidhar						Wadali		
7	Malila	Vavadi						Port Albert Victor		
8.	Shedubhar	Vavadi road								
9.	Vankia	Vadia Devli								
10.	Khijadia	Waghania								

Passengers and Goods Traffic.—The statement below gives figures about passengers booked and tonnage of goods handled at each station in the district during 1968-69:—

STATEMENT VII.5

Passengers and Goods Traffic, 1968-69

Sl No	Name of the section	Name of the station	Passenger traffic	Goods traffic (figures M/tonnes)
1	2	3	4	5
1.	Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar	1. Pipalava	10,157	...
		2 Lathi	342,900	67,529
		3. Khijadia	169,163	Nil
		4. Chital	.	...
		5. Lunidhar	91,387	22,69
		6. Kunkavav	357,228	11,471
		7. Khakhariya	77,286	Nil
		8 Vadia-Devali	188,249	57,699
		9 Vavdi	4,080	...
2.	Khijadia-Dhari-Veraval	10 Shedu Bhar	8,800	Nil
		11. Machiala	19,043	Nil
		12 Amreli	222,485	171,908
		13. Amreli Para	82,659	.
		14 Gavadka	—	.
		15. Vankia	36,546	..
		16. Sajiavadar	83,364	153
		17. Malila	11,068	..
		18. Chalala	243,107	10,118
		19. Jhar	—	—
		20. Dhari	333,151	11,992
		21. Bhader	103,633	885
3.	Kunkavav-Derdi	22. Vavdi Road	—	..
4.	Dhasa-Rajula-Mahuva	23 Damnagar	139,891	378,160
		24. Panch-Talavada Road	123,470	90.50
		25. Hathigarh	—	..
		26. Lilia-Mota	—	.
		27. Bhenswadi	3,232	.
		28. Vavera	4,977	..
		29. Rajula Jn.	—	..
		30. Dungar	—	..
5.	Rajula city -Victor	31. Rajula city	289,993	251,221
		32. Wadali	623	..
		33. Charodia	1,026	.
		34. Dungar	95,181	.
		35. Port Albart Victor	10,293	
6.	Kunkavav-Bagasara	36. Kunkavav-Town	96,150	..
		37 Waghania	17,562	
		38. Hadala-Khari	14,899	
		39. Bagasara	184,417	187,413
7.	Prachi Road-Kodinar	40. Sandhanidhar	28,115	.
		41. Ghantwad	133,140	260
		42. Chhachhar	29,110	...
		43 Kodinar	165,794	3,877
8.	Talala-Prachi Road.-Delvada	44. Harmadia	137,577	3,623

Source :

Commercial Superintendent, Western Railways, Bhavnagar Division, Bhavnagar.

WATERWAYS AND BRIDGES

Ports—There are five minor ports, *viz.*, Kotda, Kodinar, Madhwad, Pipavav and Jafrabad. They do not seem to have played any important part in the economic life of this district, as they are only minor coastal ports. Jafrabad and Pipavav were included in this district following the reorganisation of the districts in 1959. Of these five ports, Kotda, Kodinar and Madhwad are under the jurisdiction of Port Officer, Veraval Group of Ports, Veraval and Pipavav and Jafrabad are under the Deputy Engineer and Port Officer, Mahuva Group of Ports, Mahuva.

BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS

On 31st March, 1968, there were 38 bridges and causeways in the district

REST-HOUSES

The State Government maintains at different places in the district three types of rest-houses, *viz.*, Atithi Grih, Vishram Grih and Aram Grih. Atithi Grih, formerly known as Circuit House is a rest-house of the first rank; Vishram Grih, formerly called guest house is a rest-house of the second category, while Aram Grih formerly known as rest-house is a rest-houses of the third category Lodging facilities are provided mainly for officers of various Government departments touring the district in the course of their duties. Some of these are also open to the public, preference generally being given to Government servants on duty. All types of rest-houses are generally well furnished with cots, fans, crockery, mattresses, tables, chairs and other articles. Besides tea and breakfast, meals are also provided in the Atithi Grih and Vishram Grih on payment. There is a guest house at Amreli, the district headquarters, under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Public Works Department. There are rest-houses at all other taluka/mahal headquarters and some other places as shown below These are maintained by the District Panchayat, Amreli:—

Guest House	*Rest House*					
Amreli	1	Rajula	5	Khambha	9	Dhari
	2	Lathi	6	Babra	10	Mul Dwarka
	3	Lilia	7	Kunkavav-Vadia	11	Nageshri
	4	Jafrabad	8	Kodinar	12	Bagasara
					13	Damnagar

Dharmashalas and *choras* in many villages and towns are the old time rest-houses where a traveller could rest for a temporary period. *Dharmashalas* often attached to temples are built from donations by philanthropic persons In Amreli district there were 17 *dharmashalas* and 2 *sarais* in 1968

POST AND TELEGRAPHS

Prior to Independence, the district was very poorly served by the posts and telegraphs offices. In 1920, there were only 22 post offices and 86 letter boxes in the district. Besides this, there were also telegraphs offices at Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar, Damnagar, Dwarka and Beyt. After Independence, Government paid much attention to the development of road transport and many far flung villages in the district were connected by bus services. This helped the expansion of postal facilities. As a result, the number of post offices have increased considerably and at present there are 266 post offices in the district. The number of telegraphs offices have also increased side by side.

The post offices in Amreli district are working under the Senior Superintendent of Post Offices, Bhavnagar division, Bhavnagar.

Taluka-wise information regarding posts and telegraphs offices in the district is given below :—

Posts and Telegraphs Offices (as on 31st March, 1969)

Sl. No	Taluka/Mahal	No of post offices	No. of telegraph offices	No of postmen	No. of letter boxes	No. of villages without post offices
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Amreli ..	50	2	11	57	49
2.	Kunkavav-Vadia	45	3	7	98	71
3.	Babra ..	10	1	1	20	16
4.	Lathi	42	2	4	89	32
5.	Dhari .	61	6	5	130	53
6.	Kodinar ..	28	2	2	39	45
7.	Lilia	12	1	2	21	14
8.	Rajula ..	9	1	3	24	26
9.	Jafrabad ..	2	1	1	8	6
10.	Khambha ..	7	1	1	14	9
	Total	266	20	37	500	321

Besides its normal functions which include sale of postage stamps, post-cards, envelopes and remittance of money-orders, savings bank facilities are also offered to the public at the head office and sub-offices. A combined office (C. O.) renders normal postal services alongwith telegraphic services. Those villages which do not have a post office are served by the nearby branch office which delivers the post either daily or periodically. Out of a total of 596 villages, 321 are still without a post-office.

Radio Wireless

There is no broadcasting station in the district. Radio receiving sets which began to be used in the early thirties of this century in the country are becoming increasingly popular day by day. During the year 1968-69, 8,751 new licences were issued and 30,405 licences renewed.

Rural Broadcasting

The objective in the Third Five Year Plan was to make the internal coverage of broadcasting more effective by expanding the medium wave broadcast services and by strengthening the arrangements for pre-recording of programmes. For the rural areas, expansion of facilities for community listening scheme in the villages was envisaged.

In order to disseminate news about the development programmes and important happenings in the State and the country, the Rural Broadcasting Division of the Directorate of Information, Government of Gujarat, has sponsored the rural broadcasting scheme. The Division installs and maintains radio-sets and takes out necessary licences for the use of villages under a scheme, known as community listening scheme Central Government contributes 50 per cent or Rs. 125 per radio-set whichever is less, and the balance is met by the participating villages Under this scheme, radio-sets are installed in the villages in public places or in the office of the Gram Panchayat for the benefit of villagers By the end of December, 1968, the radio-sets installed in the district numbered 219

The scheme has a direct impact on the rural masses and has resulted in greater agricultural production by adoption of improved methods of agriculture, such as use of fertilisers, improved seeds, improved agricultural implements and technical know-how. Besides, it has brought about greater political awareness, has increased demand for newspaper-reading, and has led to the spread of music and other arts. It has played an important role in the green revolution that is coming up in the villages.

Telephones

Amreli district is at present fairly well served by telephone exchanges installed from time to time. Besides covering all talukas and mahals headquarter places, telephone facility is also extended to Bagasara, Damnagar, Chalala, Chital, Dungar and Bhrrai. At the end of March, 1968, there were 15 telephone exchanges, 663 connections and 21 public call offices functioning in the district These were installed between 1956 and 1968.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL DIVISIONS.

The two concepts 'industry' and 'occupation' are quite distinct, though they are mistaken for each other 'Industry' signifies that secter of economic activity in which the earner is engaged, *e. g.*, textile industry, automobile industry, etc., whereas the term 'occupation' connotes the exact function that a person performs in that economic activity, *e. g.*, fitter, blacksmith, wireman, etc.

The following statement classifies the occupations of persons at work other than cultivation according to the Census of 1961.—

STATEMENT VIII.1

Occupational Classification of Persons at Work, other than Cultivation, 1961

Sl No.	Category	Total	Percentage	Urban	Rural
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Professional, Technical and related workers .. .	4,370	5 73	1,878	2,492
2.	Administrative, Executive and Managerial workers ..	1,437	1.88	920	517
3	Clerical and related workers .	3,545	4.65	2,984	561
4	Sales workers .	10,650	13 96	5,515	5,135
5	Farmers, Fishermen, Hunter, Loggers and related workers . .	11,356	14.88	1,809	9,547
6.	Miners, Quarrymen and related workers ..	996	1.30	604	392
7.	Workers in Transport, Storage, and Communication occupations	285	2.86	219	66
8.	Craftsmen, Production Process workers and labourers, not classfied elsewhere	32,451	42 53	10,365	22,086
9.	Service, Sports and Recreation workers	9,281	12 16	6,720	2,561
10.	Workers not classified by occupation	35	0.05	10	25

Source:
District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli

The most important category of occupations besides agriculture was 'craftsmen, production process workers and labourers not elsewhere classified", accounting for 42·53 per cent, followed by those engaged as "farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers and related workers" (14·88 per cent), "sales workers" (13·96 per cent) and "service, sports and recreation workers" (12·16 per cent) who jointly claimed 41·00 per cent. Other professions in order of their relative importance were "professional, technical and related workers" (5 73 per cent), "clerical and related workers" (4 65 per cent) and "workers in transport, storage and communication occupations" (2·86 per cent), whereas "administrative, executive and managerial workers", "miners, quarrymen and related workers", and "workers not classified by occupation" formed a relatively insignificant proportion to the total workers in this district.

The Housing and Establishments Census conducted for the first time in 1960 supplies some very useful and interesting statistics about the industrial establishments in the district and the number of persons employed in them as shown in the following statement.

STATEMENT VIII·2

Industrial Establishments, 1961

Sl. No.	Description	No. of units	No. of persons employed
1	2	3	4
1.	Making of textile garments	647	1,119
2.	Manufacture of other wood and allied products ..	548	1,115
3.	Manufacture of sundry hardware	415	950
4.	Production of rice, *atta*, flour, etc. . . .	361	799
5.	Production of edible fats and oils . ..	169	789
6.	Manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear ..	359	740
7.	Cotton weaving in handlooms	309	710
8.	Manufacture of earthenware and earthen pottery	214	604
9.	Manufacture of *bidi*	176	599
10.	Manufacture of jewellery, silverware and wares using gold and other precious metals ..	238	540
11.	Production of other food products such as sweetmeat and condiments, etc. . .	214	534
12.	Manufacture of wooden furniture and fixtures ..	54	133
13.	Repairing of bicycles and tricycles . .	54	101
14.	Manufacture and assembling of machinery except textile machinery . ..	23	76
15.	Spinning and weaving of silk in textile mill .	1	75
16.	Repairing and servicing of motor vehicles .	13	74
17.	Sawing and plaining of wood .	18	64
18.	Cotton ginning, cleaning, pressing and baling	11	46
19.	All other types of printing including lithography, engraving, etching, block making . ..	10	43
20.	Manufacture of brass and bell metal products ..	19	35
21.	Others	309	1,357
	Total ..	4,162	10,503

Source :

Census of India 1961, Vol. V, Gujarat, *Report on Housing and Establishments*, Part IV-A, (1963)

The total number of industrial establishments in the district was 4,162, providing employment to 10,503 persons. The rural sector claimed as many as 63·02 per cent of the total establishments. The most important industries which offer gainful employment to the people are those relating to food, clothing and housing. As a result, a large number of persons was found employed in the production and processing of food products, manufacture of textiles and making of textile garments and manufacture of wood and other products. In other words, traditional crafts wherein artisans like carpenters, tailors, shoemakers, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, etc., are engaged still provide employment to a relative large number of persons. The increasing popularity of tobacco-smoking is, however, evident from the number of units (176) employing a total of 599 persons. These statistics also disclose that traditional arts like manufacture of earthen wares and earthern pottery have also retained their relative importance in as much as 214 units gave employment to 604 persons in the district. With the mechanisation of units new industries operated on small and medium scales have also made their appearance Those important among them are manufacture and assembling of machinery, manufacture of sundry hardware, manufacture of wooden furniture and fixtures, etc. Industries like printing presses, making of bread, biscuits, etc., repairs to bicycles and motor cars, and manufacture of soap, chemicals, etc., which did not exist in the past have also come into existence in recent times. These figures give a broad picture of the comparative importance the household and traditional crafts enjoy even to-day and the changing image of the industrial and occupational structure in the district.

Moreover with the passage of time, habits of people have also undergone change. People prefer luxury items to traditional ones. This is evident from the fact that industries concerned with the manufacture of soap, chemicals and other detergents, wooden furniture articles and bicycles and motor vehicles, have come to be established on account of the extensive use made by the people in recent times.

The number of persons engaged in rural and urban areas in certain miscellaneous occupations, selected from among those other than cultivation in 1961, are given in Statement VIII.3 appended at the end of the Chapter.

Persons working as "barbers, hair-dressers, beauticians and related workers" (5,467), those engaged as 'tailors, cutters, furriers and related workers" (2,701) and teachers (2,148) claim the largest number. Other important occupations include 'arts, letters and science" (1,653), "millers bakers, brew-masters and related workers and food and beverage workers" (1,375), other professional, technical and related workers including ordained and non-ordained religious workers, etc., (1,205), and administrators and executive officers, Government (649) in order.

Considering the relative strength of workers it is seen that the number of persons working in such categories as tailors, cutters, furriers and related workers, teachers in primary and middle schools, other professional, technical and related workers including ordained and non-ordained religious workers, etc., millers, bakers, brew-masters and related workers, food and beverage workers and artists, writers and related workers, were larger in rural areas of the district, whereas workers in such categories as barbers, hair-dressers, beauticians and related workers, house-keepers, cooks, maids and related workers, hawkers, pedlars and street vendors, administrators and executive officials-State Government; jewellers, goldsmiths and silver-smiths, launderers, dry cleaners and pressers and jurists were found to be in large numbers in the urban areas, as the nature of occupation is mostly urban in character.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

Teachers—The Census of 1961 has returned a total number of 2,148 teachers, of whom 5 were engaged in university and 1,806 were engaged in the middle and primary schools, 203 in secondary schools and 49 were returned as working in nursery and kindergarten schools. The teaching profession had 1,744 males and 404 females, the strength of women teachers being relatively higher in the primary and middle schools and comparatively small in higher educational institutions.

Legal—On 31st March, 1969, there were 46 legal practitioners and advisers distributed as under in various towns of the district :—

Lawyers

Sl No	Name of the town	Number
1	Amreli	22
2	Dhari	6
3	Kodinar	4
4	Bagasara	4
5	Lathi	3
6	Rajula	6
7	Babra	1
	Total	**46**

Medicine—The 1961 Census returned 508 persons (381 men and 127 women) as engaged in medical profession and other health services. Their break up is given below.

Sl. No.	Groups	Males	Females	Total
1.	Physicians, Surgeons and Dentists .. .	214	5	219
2.	Nurses, Pharmacists and other Medical and Health Technicians	167	122	289
	Total	**381**	**127**	**508**

Source:

District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli.

Arts, Letters and Science—Persons returned under 'arts, letters and science' were distributed in the following occupations:—

STATEMENT VIII.4

Persons engaged in Arts, Letters and Science

Sl. No. 1	Occupations 2	Males 3	Females 4	Total 5
	District Total	**2,810**	**169**	**2,979**
1	Architects, Engineers and Surveyors .	111	.	111
2.	Biologists, Veterinarians, Agronomists and related Scientists	22	.	22
3.	Social Scientists and related workers	89	6	95
4.	Arts, Writers and related workers .. .	358	27	385
	(a) Authors .	.	.	..
	(b) Editors, Journalists and related workers		..	.
	(c) Translators, Interpreters and Language Specialists	.	.	..
	(d) Painters, Decorators and Commercial Artists		..	..
	(e) Sculptors and Modellers	.	.	.
	(f) Actors and related workers ..	93	12	105
	(g) Musicians and related workers	71	1	72
	(h) Dancers and related workers		..	.
	(i) Artists, Writers and related workers .	194	14	208
5	Draughtsmen and Science and Engineering Technicians .	12		12
6.	Other professional, technical and related workers (including ordained and non-ordained religious workers)	2,218	136	2,354

Source:

District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli.

Among the persons pursuing learned professions, those returned as other professional, technical and related workers including ordained and non-ordained religious workers were the highest followed by those engaged in arts, writers and related workers. The Census also revealed that not

a single person was found as author, editor, journalist, translator, interpreter, painter, decorator, commercial artist, sculptor or modeller. The increase in the tempo of construction activity is highlighted by the fact that as many as 111 persons were found working as architects, engineers and surveyors. Only 169 women workers have been returned as social scientific and actors and musicians, artists, writers and related workers and other professional, technical and related workers including ordained and non-ordained religious workers.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Jobs in public administrative services are highly valued both by the educated and the uneducated persons, because of the security of employment and other amenities they provide The 1961 Census has returned a fairly large number of persons (649) engaged in various branches of public administration distributed as under —

Number of Persons engaged in Administrative Services, 1961

Sl. No. 1	Occupations 2	Males 3	Females 4	Total 5
	Total	**630**	**19**	**649**
1.	Administrators and Executive Officials-Central Government	39		39
2.	Administrators and Executive Officials-State Government	144	6	150
3	Administrators and Executive Officials-Local Bodies	67	2	69
4	Administrators and Executive Officials in quasi Government	11	..	11
5.	Village Officials	330	11	341
6	Administrators and Executive Officials n. e. c	39	..	39

Source *District Census Handbook*, 1961, Amreli

AMENITIES TO PUBLIC SERVANTS

Besides providing for such allowances as dearness, house rent, etc., the State Government has made provisions for the granting of festival advance as also loans for constructing residential buildings. Facility of residential accommodation is provided in deserving cases. Government considers loan applications from its employees for the purchase of vehicles. Besides travel concessions, Government servants and members of their families enjoy free medical treatment at Government hospitals or other institutions authorised by Government in this behalf. They are allowed reimbursement of expenses incurred for treatment and

concessions of leave on average pay are granted to Government servants, suffering from tuberculosis for a period of one year, and extraordinary leave for twelve months is granted in special cases. In addition, they are paid sanatorium charges inclusive of those for ordinary diet. Similarly expenses incurred for specialised diet, medicines and injections and laboratory examination prescribed by the medical authorities are also reimbursed to Government servants subject to the limits prescribed by Government during the period of convalescence.

In addition to the above benefits, Government servants and their family members are entitled to travel concessions at specified intervals for visiting their home town. They are also allowed to receive cash allowances for surrendering the whole or part of accumulated leave subject to a maximum of thirty days, once in every two years beginning from 1971.

Central Government employees, employees of the corporations like the Life Insurance Corporation, have their own schemes of allowances, leave, medical relief and provident fund and graduity.

STATEMENT VIII.3

Number of Persons engaged in Selected Occupations, 1961

Sl. No. 1	Name of the occupation 2	Urban 3	Rural 4	Total 5
1.	Physicians, Surgeons and Dentists	112	107	219
2.	Nurses, Pharmacists and other Medical and Health Technicians .. .	174	115	289
3.	Teachers	901	1,247	2,148
	(a) Teachers, University.. . .	5	..	5
	(b) Teachers, Secondary Schools .. .	203	..	203
	(c) Teachers, Middle and Primary Schools .	578	1,228	1,806
	(d) Teachers, Nursery and Kindergarten Schools	43	6	49
	(e) Teachers (others)	72	13	85
4.	Jurists	47	1	48
5	Arts, Letters and Science	633	1,020	1,653
	(a) Architects, Engineers, Surveyors.. .	92	19	111
	(b) Biologists, Veterinarians, Agronomists and related Scientists .	12	10	22
	(c) Social Scientists and related workers	76	19	95
	(d) Artists, Writers and related workers	98	110	208
	(e) Draftsmen and Science and Engineering Technicians n e c .	9	3	12
	(f) Other professional, technical and related workers (including ordained and non-ordained religious workers)	346	859	1,205
6	Administrators and Executive officials Government	345	304	649
7.	Hawkers, Pedlars and Street Vendors	509	189	698
8	Tailors, Cutters, Furriers and related workers	824	1,877	2,701
9	Jewellers Goldsmiths and Silversmiths	314	310	624
10	Millers, Bakers, Brewmasters and related food and beverage workers .	600	775	1,375
11	House keepers, Cooks, Maids and related workers	537	200	737
12	Barbers, Hair-dressers, Beauticians and related workers .	4,283	1,184	5,467
13	Launderers, Dry Cleaners and Pressers .	267	74	341

Source:

District Census Handbook, 1961, Amreli.

n e c = not elsewhere classified

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

LIVELIHOOD PATTERN

The livelihood pursuits of the people of any region and the nature and variety of occupations followed by them are closely related to the stages of economic development and the extent to which available resources are exploited for the industrial and agronomic growth of that region In any study of economic growth, man-power plays a vital role

The economy and the livelihood pattern of the people of this district are generally agro-based, as 78.65 per cent of its population live in rural areas. Out of 44.34 per cent of its active population engaged in gainful economic pursuits, 32.92 per cent are engaged in agriculture and other allied primary activities. The general population of the district has been, on the basis of work, divided into two broad categories, *viz.*, workers and non-workers by the Census of 1961 Out of the total population of 667,823 persons in the district, the number of persons engaged in some kind of economic activity or gainful employment was 296,097, while that of non-workers was 371,726. The ratio of workers to non-workers in the district thus worked out from 44.34 to 55.66, the corresponding ratio for the Gujarat State being 41.07 to 58.93 The workers were on the basis of economic activities pursued, classified into the following nine industrial categories in the 1961 Census —

STATEMENT IX.1

Category of Workers and Percentage to Workers, 1961

Sl No	Category of workers	Working population: Males	Females	Total	Percentage of total workers
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	As cultivators .	101,940	73,743	175,683	59.33
2.	As agricultural labourers .	24,380	19,731	44,111	14 90
3.	In mining, quarrying livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting, plantations, orchards and allied activities ..	3,620	632	4,252	1 43
4.	At household industry	16,052	6,678	22,730	7.68
5.	In manufacturing other than household industry	6,533	633	7,166	2.42
6.	In construction .	1,968	507	2,475	0.84
7.	In transport, storage and communications	2,549	29	2,578	0 87
8.	In trade and commerce	10,469	437	10,906	3.68
9.	In other services	19,744	6,452	26,196	8 85
	Total workers	**187,255**	**108,842**	**296,097**	**100 00**

***Source*:**
District Census Handbook, Amreli, 1961, p. 25

These figures reveal that males predominate in the working population as compared to women. The proportion of workers engaged in agricultural pursuits (74.23 per cent) is appreciably more in the district than that in the State (68.09 per cent) due to progressive farmers, good soil and good average rainfall in the district. Mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, etc., accounted for 25.78 per cent of the workers. These figures reveal that the district has not made much headway in industrial development. Trade and commerce accounted for 3.68 per cent, transport, storage and communications 0.87 per cent and construction workers 0.84 per cent.

The following statement shows the distribution of workers under different categories in the rural and urban areas of Amreli, according to the Census of 1961 :—

STATEMENT IX.2

Category of Workers, Rural-Urban Distribution, 1961

Category of workers	Percentage of population		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Total workers	44.34	47 59	32.34
Agricultural pursuits	32 92	39.22	9.68
(i) As cultivators	26.31	31.15	8 47
(ii) As agricultural labourers .	6.61	8.07	1.21
Non-agricultural pursuits . . .	11 42	8.28	22.66
(i) In mining, quarrying, livestocks, fishing, hunting, plantations, orchards and allied activities	0.64	0 56	0.92
(ii) At household industry	3.40	3 63	2.58
(iii) In manufacturing other than household industry	1 07	0.29	3.94
(iv) In construction . .	0 37	0.28	0.71
(v) In trade and commerce .	1.63	0.97	4.05
(vi) In transport, storage and communications	0.39	0.20	1.06
(vii) In other services . . .	3.92	2.44	9.40

It is evident that agricultural pursuits preponderate in the rural areas where cultivation of land is the prime economic activity of the people. But in the urban areas it is the non-agricultural pursuits which obviously claim a very large percentage of workers engaged in 'other services' followed in order by the 'trade and commerce, manufacturing other than household industry,' and 'transport, storage and communications'.

Household and Non-household Industries

A household industry is an industry not run on a scale of a registered factory, and is carried on by the head of the household at home or within the village in rural areas and only at home in urban areas, where the need for keeping employees on salary or wages is almost negligible. Among those engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, 22,730 or 3.40 per cent of the total population were engaged in household industry and 53,573 or 8.02 per cent in non-household industries. Workers engaged in household industry were classified as follows according to their employment status into : (a) employees and (b) others in the Census of 1961.

Of the 22,730 persons engaged in household industry, only 742 or 3.26 per cent were employees. The predominance of 'others' (21,988 or 96.74 per cent) that is to say, of self-employed persons and their family members and relatively low strength of hired labour and employees were the salient features of the household employment The seasonal or permanent nature of employment that this sector offered, during 1961, may be known by the number of workers engaged and periods of their working On the basis of 20 per cent sample survey carried by the Census, 1,812 number of households work for a period from 10 months to one year, 290 work for 7 to 9 months, 234 for 4 to 6 months, 42 for 1 to 3 months and 77 for unspecified period. It is also interesting to note that proportion of households as well as family workers goes on increasing with the increase in the period of working.

The employment status of persons engaged in non-household industries was broadly classified by the 1961 Census as (a) employers, (b) employees, (c) family workers, and (d) single workers. A single worker is a person working for himself, but not as a head of a household in a household industry. He is not employed by anyone else, and in turn does not employ any one else, not even members of his household except casually. A family worker is a member of a household working without receiving wages in cash or kind, in industry, business or trade conducted mainly by members of the family and ordinarily put in at least one hour labour daily in the working season An analysis of different categories of workers shows that among those engaged in non-household industries, 7.08 per cent were employers, 33.15 per cent employees, 46.10 per cent single workers and 13.67 per cent family workers.

The preponderance of single workers in the non-household industries indicate that there were several traditional crafts and professions wherein scope of large scale operations was very limited. Among the total female workers, the number of single workers was the largest (6,125) followed by those engaged as employees (1,610) and family workers (883) in order.

PRINCIPAL AND SECONDARY WORKS

There are some persons in the working population, who are engaged in more than one productive activities, one being the principal work on which such persons spend most time, and the other secondary, being next in importance.

PERSONS DOING SECONDARY WORK, 1961

(A) Persons working principally as cultivators and doing secondary work	
(a) at household industry	2,266
(b) as agricultural labourers . .	3,381
Persons working principally as agricultural labourers and doing secondary work.	
(a) at household industry	440
(b) as cultivators	1,202
Persons working principally at household industry and doing secondary work	
(a) as cultivators	727
(b) as agricultural labourers	1,233

(B) Persons working in non-household industry, trade, business, profession or service who were also engaged in household industry are 304.

Out of a total of 175,683 persons engaged in cultivation 3.22 per cent did some secondary work. Agricultural labourers as well as those engaged in household industry preferred to take up cultivation to supplement their earnings. The complimentary nature of cultivation, agricultural labour and household industry, particularly in the rural areas is firmly established by above analysis. Very few engaged in non-household industries, trade, business, profession or service, took up household industry as secondary work.

NON-WORKERS

The number of non-workers, *i. e.*, those not engaged in any economic activity was 317,726 (153,368 males. and 218,358 females) according to the 1961 Census.

The distribution pattern of non-workers according to the type of activity performed by males and females is very dissimilar. Males had the largest percentage among 'dependents, infants and disabled' (68.17 per cent), followed by 'full-time students' (28.36 per cent). These two categories jointly account for 96.53 per cent, as against 60.34 per cent, for females distributed into 'dependents, infants and disabled' (51.20 per cent), and 'full-time students' (9.14 per cent). Relatively higher percentage of male dependents is brought about by the general absence of household duties among the stronger sex claiming only 0.25 per cent in this category as against 33.32 per cent females. Females engaged in household duties were proportionately higher in towns than in the rural areas as women-folk in villages, in addition to their attending to the household duties also participated in agriculture and household industry. The higher percentage of 'Full-time students' in urban areas bespeaks the greater consciousness and opportunity urbanites have in receiving education. Male students out number females which is obviously the result of age-old social conditions and beliefs, which differentiate the two sexes in the matter of education. While for the male, it is an economic necessity, it is an acquisition for the female. The percentage of unemployed persons, etc., seeking work is found to be very small for males and practically nil for females.

PRICES

Price mechanism is influenced by the law of demand and supply. Prices show up their effect either for good or bad on the economy by reflecting changes in the level of living of the people of a region. Their role is not merely passive (index reflecting only the changes in the price levels), but active causing for widespread changes in the entire economic activity of the people. Prior to independence, Amreli with its peculiar geographic and administrative set-up, and the State capital at Baroda being located far away, had, more or less, maintained a price and wage structure that was somewhat distinct from other adjoining parts of the peninsula. The broad trends in the prices of important food-grains in the Amreli district are discussed below for selected and representative periods of time. The price data are considered separately for the following periods:

(1) Period from 1709 to 1919 (upto the end of the World War I)

(2) Period from 1920 to 1939 (interval between the two World wars)

(3) Period from 1940 to 1946 (period of World War II)

(4) Period from 1947 to 1968 (post-Independence period)

(1) Period from 1709 to 1919 (upto the end of the World War I)

Prices of important food-stuffs, during the period from 1709 to 1919 are reproduced below from the former *Gazetteer of the Baroda State.*

STATEMENT IX.3

Prices of Important Foodgrains, 1709 to 1919

(PRICES IN RS. AND PS. FOR 40 SEERS)

Year	Wheat Rs. P	Rice Rs P	*Bajri* Rs P.	*Jowar* Rs. P.	Pulses Rs. P.	*Ghee* Rs. P.	Oil Rs. P.
1709*	0-66	0-69	0-53	0-50	0-68	5-25	3-33
1719	0-50	0-50	0-47	0-44	0-49	5-72	3-65
1729	0-56	0-50	0-52	0-44	0-69	6-67	4-00
1739	0-50	0-42	0-37	0-33	0-48	5-52	3-64
1749	0-59	0-62	0-53	0-41	0-59	6-64	3-33
1759	0-56	0-58	0-47	0-44	0-51	5-92	3-64
1769	0-53	0-47	0-50	0-42	0-69	5-72	3-33
1779	0-58	0-59	0-50	0-47	0-70	5-72	3-33
1789	0-62	0-84	0-50	0-44	0-74	4-70	3-33
1799	0-81	0-78	0-83	0-66	0-81	9-41	4-00
1809	0-73	0-52	0-59	0-55	0-68	7-62	4-00
1819	0-78	0-91	0-69	0-95	0-77	8-55	2-67
1829	0-94	1-03	0-52	0-47	0-81	8-00	4-44
1839	0-78	1-00	0-69	0-58	1-16	8-82	4-00
1849	0-97	1-03	1-48	1-33	0-93	8-42	4-00
1859	0-80	1-03	0-91	0-70	0-84	11-03	3-48
1869	1-22	1-22	1-42	1-67	1-69	13-33	6-95
1879	1-78	1-22	1-00	1-30	1-17	21-33	5-72
1889	1-37	1-73	1-05	1-73	2-62	13-33	5-33
1899	1-81	1-08	1-25	1-33	1-25	13-33	5-52
1900†	2-36	3-08	2-00	1-91	2-28	22-86	8-00
1909	2-75	2-06	1-55	1-37	1-74	14-56	8-00
1919	6-50	3-15	6-23	4-37	4-69	42-50	18-00

* The year 1709 is taken as the base year because the price-data are available from that year

† Famine year.

Source:

DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, (1923), p. 301.

It would appear from the above data that foodstuffs were cheaper when mechanised transport like the railways and steamers were not introduced and the effects of consequent world-wide commercial fluctuations were not felt quickly. Formerly, the distance to which agricultural produce could go, was limited by the nature of the transport and roads available. The cultivator could not get remunerative prices for his produce and all his produce and all his wants were met mainly by barter. Towards the close of the 19th century, when mechanisation was introduced, the economic conditions underwent enormous changes.

The cultivator received better prices for his produce than ever before, but it could not be said that his material conditions improved in proportion to his monetary gains. The emerging industrialisation resulted in the scarcity of labour, which, inturn, hampered agricultural operations, as village labour migrated to towns in search of better paid jobs in the newly established industries.

Ninety years ago, prices as well as wages for both skilled and unskilled labour were low and 40 lbs. of *bajri* or *jowar* could be purchased for a rupee and a quarter Since the famine of Vikram Samvat 1956, (*Chhappanio*) (1900 A.D.), there has been a steady and continuous rise in the prices of foodstuffs which have risen tremendously. There has been a similar rise in the prices of oil, *ghee,* cloth, firewood and other articles of domestic use The precipitate rise in the prices of consumer goods could be ascribed to the plauge and famine conditions (1896-1900) and the impact of World War-I The economic forces have resulted in a rise both in the price of land and extension of the area under cultivation. With inflation of currency particularly after the World War-I, the persons with fixed incomes suffered For them, the rise in the prices of food, fuel, land and rents, caused great hardship, as the cost of living among all classes also shot up The effect of the high prices on labouring classes was more than compensated by great rise in their wages as also by the increase in the number of wage earners. The general impression is that the economic condition of unskilled labourers, whether paid in cash or in kind has greatly improved during the last 40 years. Labour became more mobile on account of industrialisation and development of communications. The scarcity of labour in villages caused by migration seriously hampered agricultural operations and its increased cost impeded execution of improvements on farms. The position of the agriculturists under the changed conditions coupled with the bad seasons, became worse, because of increase in the cost of labour and stagnant production. Uneconomic holdings caused by fragmentation, increased cost of production also played their part. The price of bullocks also rose. The only relieving feature was higher return on account of the rise in prices of foodstuffs.

(2) *Period from 1920 to 1939 (interval between tuo World Wars)*

The statement given below shows that after the War, the average retail prices of foodgrains began to ease and did not indicate upto 1927-28 wide fluctuations as the average prices of important foodgrains showed a slight decline from 1919 to 1928 —

STATEMENT IX.4

Average Retail Prices of Staple Food Articles in the Baroda State for one maund of 40 *seers*

(1 SEER—40 TOLAS IN RS. AND PAISE)

Year		Rice	Wheat	*Bajri*	*Jowar*	Pulses (*Tur*)
1919-20		5.22	4.55	3.17	3.78	7.21
1920-21	.	4.55	3.81	3.45	2.80	7.38
1921-22		4.85	5.57	4.00	3.33	6.15
1922-23	.	4.32	3.33	2.80	2.28	4.84
1923-24	.	4.32	3.00	2.62	2.16	4.32
1924-25		4.44	3.26	2.42	2.33	4.44
1925-26	.	4.35	3.63	2.84	2.45	4.90
1926-27	..	4.26	3.51	3.10	2.38	5.26
1927-28		4.44	3.00	2.35	2.80	4.65

Source

Statistical Abstract of the Baroda State.

The prices further fell from the years 1928-29 upto 1939 on account of the World Depression. This is important in the history of price fluctuations all over the world. It followed by slight recovery after 1933. The period witnessed a rapid fall in prices in the district as shown in the following statement —

STATEMENT IX.5

(IN RS. AND PAISE PER 1 MD. OF 40 SEERS)

Year		Rice	Wheat	*Bajri*	*Jowar*	Pulses (*Tur*)
1928-29	..	3.93	3.31	3.07	2.50	4.06
1929-30		3.79	3.25	2.97	2.44	4.07
1930-31		2.71	2.16	1.81	1.63	2.95
1931-32		2.40	1.87	1.56	1.48	2.96
1932-33		2.35	1.98	1.96	1.52	2.10
1933-34		2.35	2.00	2.00	1.53	2.18
1934-35	.	2.44	1.95	1.93	1.39	2.33
1935-36		2.24	1.95	1.98	1.62	2.50
1936-37		2.47	2.10	1.98	1.64	2.75
1937-38	.	2.71	2.31	2.04	1.62	2.16
1938-39	.	2.50	2.22	2.00	1.70	3.07
1939-40	.	2.60	2.50	2.35	1.95	3.20

Source

Statistical Abstract of the Baroda State

The fall in prices resulted in depreciation in the value of trade, maladjustment of costs and prices and increase in the burden of contractual obligations.

(3) *Period from 1940 to 1946 (Period of World War II)*

The worst effects of depression began to lessen after 1936-37. But definite improvement in the level of prices was noticed from 1940-41 onwards because of the declaration of Second World War in 1939 as can be seen from the table that follows :—

STATEMENT IX.6

Average Retail Prices in Rupees and Paise, 1940-41 to 1945-46

(PER MD. OF 40 SEERS)

Year		Rice	Wheat	*Bajri*	*Jowar*	Pulses (*Tur*)
1940-41	..	3.39	2.44	2.00	1.74	3 39
1941-42	..	3.99	3.33	2.45	2.03	3.74
1942-43		7.00	7 44	4.16	3.94	5.81
1943-44	..	12 50	6 69	5.10	5.50	8.54
1944-45	.	13.20	7.50	5.30	5.50	6.50
1945-46	..	13 20	7 50	5 30	5.50	6.50

Source : *Statistical Abstract of the Baroda State.*

The rise in prices was further accentuated by the tempo of increased industrial activity, scarcity of consumer goods, increase in public demand for consumer goods due to increase in purchasing power, inflation, and above all the activities of speculators, hoarders making the shortage of goods still more accute. The price of rice rose from Rs 3.39 paise per maund in 1940-41 to Rs 13.20 per maund in 1945-46 Similarly the price of wheat also increased from Rs. 2.44 to Rs. 7.50, *bajri* from Rs 2 00 to Rs. 5.30, *jowar* from Rs. 1.74 to Rs. 5.50 and pulses from Rs 3.39 to Rs. 6.50 respectively during the same period. To deal with all aspects of the problem comprehensively, the Baroda Government followed in the foot-step of other States in India and initiated various price control measures. A special Ministry assisted by a Directorate of Civil Supplies was created to supply foodgrains at reasonable rates. To enlist public co-operation, committees were appointed in each district and taluka.[1] The three main measures taken by the Government to ease the food situation were (i) Grow More Food Campagin, (ii) import of foodgrains from outside the State, and (iii) distribution of available supplies on an equitable basis.

Foodgrains, sugar and *gur*, standard cloth, kerosene and edible oil, were distributed at controlled rates through the State fair price shops, cheap grain shops; municipal cheap grain shops, co-operative society shops, etc.

1. *Baroda Administration Report*, 1945-46

This upward trend in prices continued after the Second World War and even shot up after Independence as proved by subsequent events. The country was partitioned in 1947 Introduction of extensive administrative changes and economic and social reforms, as enunciated in the basic principles of the Constitution, had a far-reaching effect on the price structure.

(4) *Period from 1947 to 1968 (post Independence period)*

In the post-Independence period, prices continued to rise as before. But as the prices of important foodgrains are not available for the period from 1948 to 1958 for the Amreli district, it is not possible to discuss the trends of price prevailing during this period. Planning era was introduced in the meantime On account of increase in the bank-rate in 1952 as an anti-inflationary measure, prices of foodgrains declined for sometime. However, due to the successful implementation of the First Five Year Plan and good crops, prices began to show an upward trend as disclosed by the following table

STATEMENT IX.7

Prices of Important Commodities

(PRICES IN RUPEES PER QUINTAL)

Sl No.	Name of the commodity	1961* Rs P	1967† Rs P
1	Rice (fine)	145 77	N A.
2	Wheat (coarse)	52 28	110 00
3	*Jowar*	39 17	69 00
4	*Bajri*	53 85	100 00
5	*Tur dal*	79 88	252 50
6	Gram *dal*	52 32	252.50
7	Groundnut oil	204 27	326 00

N A Not available

Source

* *District Statistical Abstract*, Amreli District

† *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*

The highest percentage increase in food crops was recorded in gram-*dal* and in *tur dal*, which rose respectively from Rs. 52.32 to Rs. 252.50 and Rs 79.88 to 252.50 per quintal during this period. Prices of wheat, *bajri* and *jowar* also increased abnormally This abnormal rise could broadly be attributed to the following factors as increased plan outlay, growing taxation for financing developmental schemes, continued inflation, inadequacy of available food supplies and other essential commodities hoarding, isolated geographical position of Amreli district was thus impaired

Wholesale prices of important agricultural commodities for the period, 1959-68, ruling the markets of Amreli, Dhari and Kodinar, for which information is available, are given in Statement IX.8 appended at the end of the Chapter.

WAGES

Wages generally signify all remuneration capable of being expressed in terms of money and paid to a person for the work done. The level of wages paid to different categories of workers throws considerable light on the economy of a region and the living conditions of its people. Fluctuations in prices generally influence the level of wages paid from time to time. In the early days, the mode of payment of wages, especially in the agricultural sector, was governed and determined by customs and traditions. The agricultural labourers used to be paid either in cash or in kind or in both. Skilled workers, however, generally received wages in cash. Those paid to certain categories of workers during the early years of the present century are aptly described in the *Gazetteer of the Baroda State* (1923) as follows ·

> "Payment of wages in kind still prevails, especially in villages. Agricultural labourers who are permanent servants are provided by their masters with food, and clothing and an annual cash payment. Casual labour, at the time of weeding and harvesting, is in some places remunerated by cooked food once a day in addition to a small cash payment, which generally depends upon the demand and supply in the labour market. A day labourer was formerly paid 2 to 4 annas per day, but owing to the demand for labour in the factories and to the general rise in prices, the wages of agricultural labourers have risen to 8 to 12 annas per day and in the harvesting season, to as much as one rupee per day."[1]
>
> " Twenty years ago, a field labourer could be had for from 2 to 4 annas per day, a carpenter or a blacksmith for from 8 to 12 annas, and a bricklayer for from 4 to 6 annas. Now field labourers cannot be had in the season for less than 12 annas, a carpenter or blacksmith for less than Rs 2½ to Rs. 3, and a bricklayer for less than a rupee or rupee and a half Domestic servants demand double and treble the pay for which they could be had formerly. . Whatever be the cause of the increased cost of labour, of food, and of acquiring culturable land, the immediate effects are quite clear in respect to the classes whose incomes are fixed. For them, the rise in the prices of food, fuel, land, service, and rents, have resulted in unmixed hardship accentuated by the correlated fact that the standard of living among all classes is rapidly rising. The effect of the high prices on the labouring classes is more than compensated by the enormous rise in their wages.

1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I, (1923,) p. 300.

The general impression is that the unskilled labourers whether paid in cash or in kind, has greatly improved his economic position in recent years. Labour has become more mobile and the labourer more independent The scarcity of labour seriously hampers agricultural operations and its increased cost impedes the execution of improvements in land The position of the agriculturists under the changed conditions, coupled with the bad seasons, has been very hard. He has to pay more for labour and his produce is small. His cattle also cost him more The only relieving feature in his case is that his surplus pays him more handsomely than before, on account of the rise in prices of food stuffs "1

"In the period from Vikram Samvat 1942-49 (A. D. 1886-93) the average rate was 3 as. to 3 as. 6 pies. In the period from 1949-56, it was 3 as. 9 pies to 4 as. In the subsequent period in the famine years 1956, 1958 and in 1961 and 1962, which were very bad years, it was 2 as. 6 pies For the other years, it varied from 3 as. to 3 as. 4 pies. In 1965, the rate was 4 as to 5 as. 8 pies. These figures are for the Chalala group For the other group, the rate is usually 50 per cent higher and sometimes as in 1965, it is double. The majority of farm labourers are *Kanbis*, next to them come *Dheds*, and then follow *Kumbhars* and *Ahirs*, *Kolis* are few in number Chalala and Nesdi across the Sel in Bhavnagar territory supply the largest number of labourers In Chalala and Dhari, the wages are paid in money In the rest of the taluka, they are paid in the kind Labourers comming from the foreign territory are always paid in money all over the Taluka "2

"The rates of agricultural wages in the Kodinar taluka range 10 annas to 12 annas Artisans receive from Rs 1-8-0 to Rs. 2."3

"The rates of agricultural wages in the Amreli taluka range from 8 to 10 annas Artisans receive from Rs 1-4-0 to Rs. 1-8-0."4

The rates of wages to the labourers have increased considerably. Artisans and labourers were paid at the following rates in 1930-31 A D., in Amreli district —

(WAGES IN RUPEES AND ANNAS)

Artisans				Labourers		
Masons	Carpenters	Blacksmiths	Others	Agriculturists	Porters	Others
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-0	1-0	1-0	0-9	0-7	0-7	0-6

Source :

The Annual Report of the Baroda State, (1930-31), p. 18

1 DESAI G. H AND CLARKE A B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. I (1923), pp. 349-50

2 *Revision Settlement Report of Dhari Taluka*, (1910-11), p. 7.

3. *Kodinar Taluka, Revision Settlement Report* for the year 1927.

4 *Amreli Prant, Second Revision Settlement Report of Amreli Taluka*, (1923-30).

No accurate analysis of increase or decrease in the wage structure in the district could be made in the absence of information of the subject in the reports, etc., of the State. However, broad trends have been indicated below.

Like prices, the wages have also shown continued upwards trend from the First World War (1914-1918) to the Second World War (1939-45). After Independence and the subsequent integration of the State, the wage trends gradually began to exhibit features akin to those prevailing in other parts of the country. The daily agricultural wages in Amreli for certain categories of workers from March, 1957 to July, 1963 for certain selected months were as follows.—

STATEMENT IX.9

Daily Agricultural Wages at Amreli

(IN RUPEES AND PAISE)

Sl No.	Type of labour	March 1957	Nov. 1957	Jan. 1958	Nov. 1960	July 1961	Aug. 1962	July 1963
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Skilled Labour							
	(a) Carpenters	4 00	4.00	4.00	5.00	8 00	5.00	5.00
	(b) Blacksmiths	4.00	4.00	4 00	5 00	5.00	5 00	5.00
	(c) Cobblers	N.A.	N A.	N.A	N A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
2.	Field Labour							
	(a) Men	1.50	1.50	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
	(b) Women	1.00	1.00	1.50	1 75	2.00	1.50	1.50
	(c) Children	0.75	0.75	1.00	N.A	1.00	1.00	1.00
3.	Other Agricultural Labour							
	(a) Men	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
	(b) Women	1 50	1.50	1.50	1.75	1 75	1.50	1.50
	(c) Children	1 00	1.00	1 00	1.00	1 00	1 00	N.A.
4	Herdsmen							
	(a) Men	1 50	1 50	1 50	2.00	2.00	2 00	N.A.
	(b) Women	1.25	1.25	1.25	1 75	1 75	1 50	N.A.
	(c) Children	1 00	1.00	0.75	1.00	1.00	1.00	N.A.

N A.=Not available

Source :

Government of Gujarat, *Labour Gazettes*

Wages generally exhibit the same tendency as prices and have, on the whole, risen from one period to another. The remuneration paid to different categories of workers appears to have been governed by the general

law of supply and demand, nature of work done and the skill and aptitude required.

The average daily wages for different categories of workers for certain selected places in the district during July, 1964 to January, 1968 for certain selected months (as available) are given in Statement IX.10 appended at the end of the Chapter.

The statistics show that fluctuations in wages of skilled workers were comparatively less marked than in the case of field and other agricultural labour. The wage level, in general, except in certain categories, has shown a rising trend, reflecting a rise in the prices of commodities and the effects of inflationary pressure generated by increased industrial and developmental activities in the country. The rates of wages have increased considerably and the labourers have to work for 8 hours normally. Thus, the increase in the wage rate as well as the limit of maximum working hours have improved their economic condition.

STANDARD OF LIVING

The standard of living of any class in a society is determined by the income accruing to it and the pattern of expenditure into which that income is distributed. A study of the family budgets of different income groups thus proves helpful in understanding their standard of living. With this purpose in view, a family budget survey of some selected families in different strata of society was undertaken in October, 1969, both in rural and urban areas of the district. The account that follows is based on the survey results and the personal observations and impressions gathered during the survey. Selection of families was done on the basis of stratified random sampling.

The results of the survey indicated below may be read subject to certain limitations. To begin with, the universe of the survey was limited to the Amreli town for the urban areas and 3 villages for the rural areas. Secondly, the number of families surveyed was also limited. Thirdly, the heads of the families were reluctant to supply the correct information for fear of future repercussions from the Tax Departments. As a result, they gave inflated and unrealistic figures for expenditure *vis-a-vis* their income. Where some families were willing, they were ignorant. They could not give precise figures because they had not maintained accounts particularly in the rural areas. These are primarily the limitations of the methodology and not of concepts.

URBAN

The district has 13 towns and no cities. Among them, Amreli is the biggest and the most important town. It is the district headquarters and a large trading and commercial centre, besides being an educational

nerve centre of the district. It was, therefore, selected as a centre for the urban survey. For the purpose of survey, families were divided into four income-groups; (i) Group I—families whose income was Rs. 1,500 or less per year, (ii) Group II—families with annual income between Rs. 1,501 and Rs. 3,000, (iii) Group III—families with annual income above Rs. 3,000 but less than Rs. 6,000, and (iv) Group IV—families with an annual income above Rs. 6,000. In the selection of families, care was taken to make the survey as representative as possible by including most of the important occupations in the city.

Lower Income Group (Group I—Annual Income Rs. 1,500 or less)—This group which represents the lowest stratum of the urban population mainly consisted of un-skilled workers and petty artisans, lower staff in commercial establishments, shop assistants, hawkers, peons, etc. The standard of living of people belonging to this group was far from comfortable. The limited income of the family barely met the minimum needs of the family, leaving almost nothing for articles of comforts. Most of the families were found in debt and did not have much by way of savings. One of the ways adopted for bridging the gap between the limited earnings and the essential expenditure, was to postpone payment of a part or whole, of some of the bills or to incur debt. This vicious circle was broken only when some ornaments were ultimately mortgaged or sold off to pay up the long standing debts. In a number of cases, the debt was incurred by borrowing money from friends or relatives. In other cases, money-lenders were approached for loans. Most of the families did not have any property worth the name. In a few cases, the females had one or two ornaments of gold in form of bangles or chain. Due to economic stress they did not have sufficient household articles, which mostly consisted of a cot or two, a few utensils and other cheap miscellaneous belongings. The percentage of literacy was 65 in this group. Their employment was not always of a permanent character. The average monthly income of the families surveyed turned out to be about Rs. 90, as against the average expenditure of Rs. 110. The average size of a family was 5 and its per capita income came to Rs. 18 per month. Most of the families were found to be in debt, the average debt amounted to Rs. 500 per family. About 65 per cent of the total expenditure was incurred on food of inferior quality. Fruits, vegetables, milk products, sweets, etc., seldom figured as items of expenditure. Next to food, clothing, fuel and housing constituted the major items on which expenditure was incurred. Each of these items formed about 6 per cent of the total expenditure. The only item of expenditure, which can be termed non-essential was that on tea, *bidi*, or cigarettes (5 per cent), which to them have become as much a necessity of life as food and clothing. Thereafter not much income was left to be spent on entertainment, education, medical care and religious and social ceremonies which amounted to only ½ per cent each.

Lower Middle Income Group (Group II—Annual Income between Rs. 1,501 and 3,000)—This class consisted of primary school teachers, clerks in public and private offices, small traders, workers in factories hawkers and others self-employed in petty occupations. Percentage of literacy in this group was 60. The average monthly income of a family in this group amounted to Rs. 192 per month, or about Rs. 2,300 per year. The average annual expenditure was reported to be Rs. 2,500 giving an average deficit of about Rs 200 every year. Nearly 60 per cent of the families surveyed reported deficit budgets and were in debt. The average indebtedness of a family amounted to Rs. 800 which was mainly incurred to meet expenditure of marriage and social customs, education of children or sickness. Most of them managed to get loans from relatives, while a few borrowed from money-lenders A small percentage of them had secured loans for business purposes also. About 30 per cent of the families lived in their own houses, while the rest lived in rented ones. Only a few possessed precious ornaments and a fewer still had landed property. Nearly 20 per cent of the families surveyed owned radio-sets, and bicycles and wrist-watches. More than 56 per cent of their total expenditure was spent on food. In terms of percentage expenditure, there were no major changes from the pattern noticed for the Group I except that families in this group spent a little more on clothing, education, housing and religious and social ceremonies. While clothing formed 11 per cent of expenditure, housing, fuel, lighting, medicine and education accounted between 3 and 6 per cent each Religious and other ceremonies formed nearly 4 per cent of their expenditure These variations perhaps reflect a higher social status of this class that call for greater expenditure on these items. Their plight, however, was none too happy as compared to the previous group.

Upper Middle Income Group (Group III—Annual Income between Rs. 3,001 and 6,000)—This class is drawn from the so called white-collared persons, such as Government servants, college lecturers and high school teachers, besides retail traders, owners of small industrial establishments, etc Families belonging to this group were found to live in better houses. Percentage of literacy was obviously much higher in this group, coming very near to 90 per cent. Nearly half of the families owned their houses; others lived in quarters provided by their employers or in rented premises. This educated middle class has by experience managed to cut their coat according to the cloth. A family in this group had an average annual income of Rs 4,200. Most of the families managed to live within their income. A number of families were reported occasionally under debt, though they had no regular deficit budgets. In other words, they had incurred debts and secured loans for promoting their existing business or starting new business. There were few others also, who were reported to have incurred debt for marriage purposes or for medical treatment, though ordinarily

they could live within their means. Another interesting finding was that savings in this group were not confined to families with large surplus budgets only. Those with balanced and deficit budgets also contributed to provident funds, and/or life insurance policies to save for the rainy day. Almost all families owned ornaments. Few of them possessed radio sets, bicycles, and some items of furniture. Only 25 per cent of the families employed part-time domestic servants for cleaning vessels and washing clothes.

Their expenditure on food accounted for about 52 per cent of the total expenditure. They spent comparatively more on milk and *ghee* (12 per cent), edible oils and spices (6 per cent) and fruits and vegetables (7 per cent). Clothing claimed more than 10 per cent. Fuel and lighting (5 per cent), education (4 per cent), tea, coffee, etc, (3·75 per cent), social occasions and religious ceremonies (3 per cent), and medicine (2 per cent) constituted the other items of their expenditure.

Upper Income Group (Group IV—Annual Income Rs. 6,001 and above)—The upper class included retail and wholesale traders, medical practitioners, pleaders, goldsmith-*cum*-jewellers, owners of factories and Government servants drawing higher salaries. It was economically well-off and its members lived a fairly comfortable life This class can be easily distinguished from others by the types of houses in which its members live and the type and extent of their household belongings. Nearly 75 per cent of the families owned their houses; the rest occupied rented premises. Average monthly income of a family in this group was Rs 725 and its average monthly expenditure Rs. 575. Each one of the families surveyed reported surplus budget. This group, as a whole, not only had landed property, but also movable assets such as ornaments, furniture and other articles of entertainment, comfort and luxuries. Nearly 70 per cent of the families possessed radio-sets; a few also owned cars. Other miscellaneous articles possessed included costly items of furniture, electric fans, etc. Those who were in business, invested their surplus in it, while others invested in bank deposits, shares and securities, insurance policies, etc. About 75 per cent of the families employed whole-time domestic servants, who were paid between Rs. 10 and 25 per month.

The families in this income group spent about 42 per cent of their total expenditure on food including milk, *ghee*, edible oil and vegetables. This percentage was the lowest compared to other income groups. On the other hand, their expenditure on clothing (13 per cent), education (6 per cent), travel (5 per cent) and medicine (3·5 per cent) was the highest among all income groups both in rural and urban areas. A higher expenditure on education indicates not only greater literacy, but a higher level of education as well. Similarly, a comparatively higher expenditure on medicine reflects their capacity and desire to keep fit and healthy.

RURAL

The standard of living in rural areas differs from that in urban areas to a considerable extent. This is because of the predominantly agricultural character of the area, which is reflected in its occupational structure. The assessment of the standard of living in the rural areas is also beset with several difficulties. A majority of people living in the rural areas, being cultivators, consume foodgrains produced by them. Thus the most important item of expenditure, *i e*. foodgrains is conspicuous by its absence in their family budgets. Village artisans and field labourers generally receive their remuneration in kind and as such correct assessment of their income and expenditure becomes difficult. Moreover, many of those engaged in agriculture often supplement their income by following some ancillary occupations. Last but not the least, the ignorance and the hesitancy on their part to give correct information also make it difficult to arrive at a correct assessment of their income and expenditure.

For the purpose of survey, three representative villages in different parts of the district were selected in consultation with the district authorities. Families in rural areas were divided into two main groups, agriculturists and non-agriculturists. Agriculturists were considered under three different categories according to the size of their holdings, namely, (i) small cultivators, (ii) medium cultivators and (iii) large cultivators. Agricultural labourers formed a class by themselves. The non-agriculturist classes comprised village artisans, grocers, retail traders, school teachers, Government employees and salaried people.

CULTIVATORS

Before studying the standard of living of the agriculturists, it would be helpful to study the size of their agricultural holdings. The size of land holdings and the number of landholders provide useful data for the study of the agrarian structure in the district. The data about the number of landholders and the size of land held by them in 1969 are given in the following statement

STATEMENT IX.11

Size of Land Holdings in 1969

Size of holdings (in acres)	No.of holders	Percentage to total holders	Area held (in acres)	Percentage to total area held
1	2	3	4	5
1. Less than one acre ..	1,796	2.60	787	0.06
2. 1 to 5 acres	11,126	16 10	47,942	3 81
3. 6 to 10 acres	14,650	21.20	130,099	10.35
4. 11 to 16 acres ..	15,899	23 00	281,164	22 36
5. 17 to 48 acres .	22,583	32 68	583,287	46.39
6. 49 to 96 acres ..	2,844	4 12	169,276	13.46
7. Above 96 acres ..	216	0.30	44,813	3 57
Total ..	69,114	100 00	1,257,368	100.00

Source :

Collector, Amreli District, Amreli.

A study of the above statement brings out the glaring inequality in possession of land between large and small cultivators. On the one hand, about 40 per cent of the cultivators forming the class of small agriculturists hold among them only 14 per cent of the total land below 10 acres. On the other hand, over 4 per cent of the total landholders possess between them 17 per cent of the total land, each one of them having more than 50 acres. The bulk of the cultivators, (56 per cent) however, comprises the middle group, and occupies 69 per cent of the total land area.

SMALL CULTIVATORS

This class forms the lowest rung of the agriculturists. Nearly 40 per cent of the cultivators in this district fall under this group. They occupy an area varying from 1 acre to 10 acres The average land holding of the families surveyed was 3.35 acres per family. Most of the cultivators in this group did not have irrigated land. They, therefore, raised mostly kharif crops consisting of cereals and pulses.

The average size of a family in this group consisted of 5; 2 of them were earners, of whom one was generally a female Their annual income averaged to about Rs 1,700, which was mostly derived from farming, supplemented, at times, by wages earned by casual agricultural labour. Their average annual expenditure worked out to about Rs. 1,900. Every family had a deficit of Rs. 200 annually. Obviously, therefore, most of the families in this group had to incur debts to wipe off recurring deficits. Some of them also incurred debts for productive purposes

A recent enquiry into the problems of small farmers[1] has highlighted the fact that eventhough co-operative movement has made commendable progress in some parts of the district, the smaller farmers are not benefited by it. The co-operative movement, as the report says, has helped mainly the substantial farmers This revelation has been reinforced by the Report of the All-India Rural Credit Survey published by the Reserve Bank of India. The enquiry also revealed that a considerable portions of farmers took recourse to money-lenders, who charged exhorbitant rates of interst. About 38 per cent of these farmers took loans, because they could not meet their day-to-day domestic expenses. A large number of small farmers were reported to have gone under on account of inadequate income leading to indebtedness

Their expenditure pattern threw up interesting facts About 62 per cent of their total expenditure was on food. Milk and vegetables did not form important and regular items of their diet Many of the families surveyed in this group reported that they could hardly spend anything on

1. An enquiry into the problems of low-income farmers in Kodinar conducted by the Indian Society of Agricultural Research, Bombay, (1958)

these items. If they possessed a milching cow they consumed the entire yield; if they had none, they had to do without milk. Similarly, in the case of vegetables, if they grew them in their fields, they consumed them as an item of food, but they seldom consumed a vegetable after purchasing it from bazaar. In the case of others, milk and vegetables had a low priority, as they accounted for only 5 per cent of their total expenditure. The important items of their regular expenditure were clothing (10 per cent), *bidi*, tobacco, etc (7 per cent); religious and other ceremonies (4 per cent); medicines (2 per cent), etc. Education formed only about 1 per cent of expenditure in case of a few families. Though tea was a regular and important item in their daily pattern of expenditure, most of the families surveyed could not recollect and report the exact amount spent by them on this item, but some reported that they spent 2 to 5 per cent on tea.

Most of the families had their own houses which were generally small structures set up with mud or unburnt bricks Their cattle wealth consisted of one or two bullocks Few of them reported to be in possession of ornaments. Their modicum of assets consisted of a small farm, farm equipment and miscellaneous domestic articles

MEDIUM CULTIVATORS

The medium cultivators form the largest group of cultivators. They constitute 56 per cent of the total cultivators and hold among them nearly 69 per cent of the total land Each of them occupies between 11 and 48 acres of land In terms of money, the average annual income of the families surveyed in this group was Rs 6,000. The main source of their incom was from the cash crop raised in their farms Their livestock provided a supplementary source of income to some of them The earnings of this group of families were generally influenced by sharp fluctuations in agricultural prices A small rise in prices was immediately reflected in their expenditure pattern, which was on the whole fairly satisfactory. They generally owned a pair of bullocks, a cart and other farm implements. Their average size of family was five of whom two were earners. Family members including children helped the head of the family in carrying out various agricultural operations. In addition to farming, livestock provided a subsidiary source of income to some of them.

Only a few families could save. But many of them were in debt, which was incurred both for productive and un-productive purposes. More than half of the debt was for improvement of agriculture. The rest was for fulfilling social obligations like marriage, death, etc The expenditure pattern of this group did not show large variations from that of the preceding group, except that, the percentage of expenditure on clothing, religious and social obligations, travel and medicine was a little more, in case of this group As regards their assets, almost all the families survey-

ed owned a house or two and 6 to 7 animals consisting of bullocks, buffaloes and cows. A few of them had installed oil-engines at their farms.

Large Cultivators

The large cultivators form the top stratum of the village community. For the purpose of survey, cultivators possessing more than 48 acres of land were included in this group. These cultivators formed only 4 per cent of the total cultivators, but among them occupied 17 per cent of the total area of land. The economic condition of this group was obviously good. The average number of members among the families surveyed by us in this group was 10—the largest among all groups, and of them, 3 were reported to be earning members. The families in this class on an average earned about Rs. 9,000 a year. A principal source of their income was agriculture, in which cash crops predominated. The livestock constituted a subsidiary source of their income Each family on an average possessed 11 animals, including two pairs of bullocks, cows, buffaloes, etc. Despite their preference for family labour, nearly half of the families had to employ hired labour because of their large holdings Over 80 per cent of the families surveyed were able to save regularly either in cash or in precious metals and ornaments. Some of them invested part of their savings in improvement of their land or construction of houses. Lavish expenditure on several social and religious occasions considerably cut into their accumulated savings. Nearly 80 per cent of the families had installed oil-engines at their farms. Their household equipment could be said to be adequate for comfortable living

Their expenditure on food could not be precisely calculated in terms of money, as most of their requirements for cereals, pulses, milk, *ghee*, vegetables, etc., were met from their own farm produce. Their average annual expenditure on clothing was found to be about 12 per cent and that on social cerimonies about 7 per cent of their total expenditure *Bidi* and tobacco figured as an important item in their expenditure pattern accounting for nearly 6 per cent A relatively higher expenditure on these items reflected their better standard of living, which was also evident from their *pucca* built houses, as also in the precious ornaments possessed by them. Many of them owned more than one houses the additional houses being farm houses, where some members of the family used to stay to keep watch in the fields. Expenditure on fuel and lighting did not cost much as they used cow-dung cakes, stumps and other fuel available in their farms. Medicine, education and travel taken together formed less than 5 per cent of their expenditure.

Non-cultivating Classes

This group included agricultural labourers, village artisans, small traders and salaried people living in the village. Of them, the standard of

living of agricultural labourers was miserable. However, as they had more earning members, they could manage within their small daily earnings. In the case of village artisans like *suthar* (carpenter), *luhar* (blacksmith), *mochi* (cobbler), *darji* (tailor), etc., exact idea of their pattern of expenditure could not be ascertained, as most of them received part payment for their services in the form of foodgrains from the farmers at the time of harvest. The economic condition of the salaried people which included school teachers, village level functionaries, etc., was far from satisfactory. Their earnings were not enough and many of them had deficit budgets. However, as their counterparts in urban areas, they had by long experience learnt the art of adjusting their expenditure pattern to their fixed income, so that on the whole indebtedness was less marked in their case as compared to others

Traders represent a distinct class in a village economy They often act as seller, buyer and money-lender rolled into one. The agricultural bias of our village economy has been largely responsible for this typical and unique combination of functions. They accommodate cultivators by providing money for agricultural and other purposes and realise the amount at the time of harvest, mostly in kind. The volume of their business varies largely according to the population of the village and the economic condition and needs of the inhabitants of the village While a small trader had hardly a turnover of Rs 300 every month, his bigger counterpart had a turnover comparable to that of the urban trader. They generally live a simple life without spending much on comforts and joys of life As a result, they mostly had balanced budgets.

General Remarks—The analysis of the survey brings out a broad and representative picture of the levels of living obtaining in rural and urban areas of the district The most striking feature is the uneven distribution both in levels of income of the people as well as in the pattern of their expenditure While the highest per capita income among families surveyed was reported to be Rs. 4,500, the lowest was Rs 120 only. Similarly, the highest per capita expenditure was reported to be Rs. 3,018 and the lowest was about Rs. 170 The most important item of expenditure of the families both in urban and rural areas was food accounting between 40 and 70 per cent of their total budgets Expenditure on non-food items was about 55 per cent in urban areas and about 40 per cent in rural areas It was found during the survey that both in urban and rural areas the percentage of expenditure on foodgrains went on decreasing with the increase in income, while the expenditure on other items of consumption increased Especially in urban areas, it was found that with increase in income, the increase of expenditure on articles of general consumption was proportionately less, as compared to expenditure on articles of comforts, medical care, entertainment, etc This reflected the

common principle of economics that when the income increases, the expenditure on comforts and luxury items increases more rapidly.

The standard of living of the poor and the lower middle classes, *i. e.*, Group I and II in urban areas and the agricultural labourers and the small landholders in the rural areas was of the subsistance level A large number of families in these groups were found to eke out a miserable existence. It was found that the benefit that accrued to these classes by way of increased emoluments or wages was almost offset by the continuously rising prices of consumer goods that put very heavy strain on their budgets. Though it is true that increased agricultural production and a favourable climate created by the land reforms legislation have resulted in a definite improvement in the standard of living of the people in rural areas, it is mainly the big landholders who have acquired a lion's share from the benefits of development. The standard of living of these groups has definitely improved for the better They now live in better houses, put on better clothes, spend more after clothing, education and items of comforts such as transistors, radios, bicycles, wrist-watches, etc., and own precious metals and ornaments Nearly half of the families surveyed in this group owned radios, wall-clocks, bicycles, etc. Similarly, in urban areas, it is the higher income group that has benefited more The rich, in general, have become, richer.

The survey also reveals certain characteristics peculiar to this district. Situated as the district is in an interior part of the State, its towns possess but a few urban characteristics Even Amreli which is the biggest town is not as urbanised as the other district headquarters in the Saurashtra region. The life of the people was found to be more simple and less luxurious People had frugal habits and in general, were found to spend comparatively less on cinemas restaurants, fashions and other luxuries The house-rents were found to be a little high in Amreli because of the sudden development of the town after reorganisation of the districts in 1959. The pressure on housing increased considerably as a large number of Government servants, were transferred to Amreli This resulted in increased house-rents as there was no corresponding increase in the construction of new houses

General Level of Employment

Utilisation of human resources as determined by its working force engaged in different economic activities and their distribution into different sectors of economy are helpful in assessing the progress made in the various sectors. The following statement gives the percentage distribution of working force in different sectors between 1951 and 1961 as disclosed by the last two Censuses

STATEMENT IX.12

Percentage distribution of Working Force by Sectors between 1951 and 1961

Primary Sector

Total		As cultivators		As agricultural labourers		In mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities	
1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
63 18	75 67	37 81	59 33	21 46	14 90	3 91	1.44

Secondary Sector

Total		At household industry and in manufacturing other than household industry		In construction	
1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961
9	10	11	12	13	14
11 65	10 93	11 31	10.10	0 34	0 83

Tertiary Sector

Total		In trade and commerce		In transport, storage and communications		In other services	
1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961
15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
25 17	13 40	6 48	3 68	1 89	0 87	16 80	8 85

Source : Census of India 1961, Vol V, Gujarat, Part I-A (iii), *General Report on the Census, Economic Trends and Projections*, (1965), pp. 12-13

During the decade the largest percentage of working force has conti nued to be employed in the primary sector and that too in cultivation o land. The percentage of total workers engaged in the primary secto increased from 63 18 to 75 67 during the decade 1951-1961 with a corre ponding decline in the tertiary sector. Workers engaged in cultivatio increased from 37 81 per cent in 1951 to 59 33 per cent in 1961, due t implementation of land reforms, whereas those employed as agricultur labourers and in animal husbandary, mining, quarrying, forestry, fisher etc., have decreased from 21·46 per cent to 14·90 per cent and from 3·

per cent to 1·44 per cent respectively during the same period. The percentage of agricultural labourers decreased as many of them were given lands on ownership basis under the land reform measures. Workers in the secondary sector comprising manufacturing, other household industry and construction work on the whole decreased from 11·65 per cent to 10·93 per cent but there is slight increase in construction work from 0·34 per cent to 0·83 per cent during this period.

The percentage of those engaged in the tertiary sector declined from 25·17 per cent to 13·40 per cent in the inter-censal period, 1951-61. The largest decline was noticed in the category of "other services" which declined from 16·80 per cent to 8·85 per cent, followed by trade and commerce from 6·48 per cent, to 3·68 per cent and transport, storage and communications from 1·89 per cent to 0·87 per cent in order.

The following statement gives variations in the employment of working population in the different industrial categories during 1951-1961:—

STATEMENT IX.13

Variation in Working Population by Industrial Sectors between 1951 and 1961

Sectors	Working population 1951	Working population 1961	Increase or decrease 1951-61	Percentage increase or decrease 1951-61	Gujarat State percentage increase or decrease 1951-61
1	2	3	4	5	6
All Sectors	**201,786**	**+296,097**	**+94,311**	**+46.74**	**+28.91**
Primary Sector	*127,485*	*+224,046*	*+96,561*	*+75.74*	*+33.13*
As cultivators	76,286	+175,683	+99,397	+130.30	+53.09
As agricultural labourers	43,303	44,111	+808	+1.87	+2.17
In mining, quarrying, live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities	7,896	4,252	−3,644	46.15	−55.62
Secondary Sector	*23,499*	*+32,371*	*+8,872*	*+37.75*	*+63.07*
At household industry and in manufacturing other than household industry	22,815	29,896	7,081	+31.04	61.87
In construction	684	2,475	+1,827	+267.11	+79.21
Tertiary Sector	*50,802*	*39,680*	*—11,122*	*—21.89*	*—1.30*
In trade and commerce	13,084	10,906	—2,178	-16.65	·0.40
In transport, storage and communications	3,818	2,578	—1,240	—32.48	—59.30
In other services	33,900	26,196	—7,704	—22.73	—8.59

Source :

Census of India 1961, Vol V, Gujarat, Part I-A (iii), *General Report on the Census., Economic Trends and Projections*, (1965), pp. 10-11

The total working force increased from 201,786 in 1951 to 296,077 in 1961 or by 46·74 per cent, as against 28·91 per cent in the State as a whole. In the primary sector, the increase in the working force was to the extent of 75·74 per cent, as compared to 33·13 per cent in the State. In the secondary sector, there was an increase of 37·75 per cent, as against 63·07 per cent in the State. This shows the inadequate development in industries. Decline of 21·89 per cent in the tertiary sector as against 1·30 per cent in the State was extremely precipitate. In the primary sector, persons engaged as cultivators increased by 130·30 per cent due to the implementation of land reforms and tenancy legislations in the district which enabled several workers in other categories to acquire the higher status of landholders. In the secondary sector, workers engaged in manufacturing industries have increased by 31·04 per cent and those in construction by 267.11 per cent owing to expansion in building and construction activities on account of implementation of the Five Year Development Plans

The decline in the number of workers in trade and commerce, transport, storage and communications and other services by 16·65, 32·48 and 22·73 per cent respectively is due to the fact that greater opportunities of profitable employment were available in other occupations.

Employment Status

For a proper assessment of the employment status of workers, it will be convenient to study them under the categories of those engaged in agricultural as well as non-agricultural pursuits Among those engaged in agriculture, the most important status is that of self-employed persons, who work with the help of family labour, the role of retained and hired labour in the existing state of cultivation which is not yet commercialised and mechanised being relatively less important Those engaged in non-agricultural pursuits may be classified into employers, employees, single workers, and family workers and those engaged in household industry into employees and others Of the 53.573 persons at work in non-household industry in the district (i e., in trade, business, profession or service), 3,792 or 7·08 per cent were returned as employers, 17,739 or 33·15 per cent were returned as employees, 24,699 or 46·10 per cent single workers and 7,323 or 13·67 per cent family workers

Employment Exchange

The State Directorate of Employment runs employment exchanges at different places with a view to determining the type of personnel in short supply, find out the employment opportunities likely to arise and assess man-power requirements of professional, scientific, skilled and technical workers. The Employment Exchange at Amreli was opened in December, 1961. With the passing of 'The Employment Exchange (Compulsory Notification of

Vacancies). Rules 1960" the establishments in the public sector as well as private sector employing 25 or more persons are required to notify their vacancies to the Employment Exchange before recruitment under the provisions of the Employment Exchange (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act, 1959.

With a view to disseminating employment information and vocational guidance services as also to render employment assistance to the extent possible to the employment seekers in the rural areas, an Employment Information and Guidance Bureau has been set-up at Lathi, which works under the Employment Exchange at Amreli. This Bureau also serves as an information centre and disseminates information connected with the problems of manpower utilization in the rural areas of the district. It is expected to carry out employment surveys in community development blocks where rural works programmes are located with a view to mobilising manpower and to assess the manpower utilization by rural works projects.

The maintenance of an up-to-date information cell with both verbal and visual aids to assist in better understanding of the current local occupational pattern and the employment market in general is highly essential in view of mounting unemployment among the educated. This includes exhibition of career pamphlets, career charts, pamphlets pertaining to training in rural occupations and community development in its various aspects, etc.

The following statement gives the Employment Exchange statistics of the district for the period 1961-68 :—

STATEMENT IX.14

Employment Exchange Statistics, 1961-68

Year	Number of registrations	Number placed in employment	Number on live register at the end of each period	Number of employers using exchange	Number of vacancies notified
1	2	3	4	5	6
1961 ..	457		457		
1962 .	2,364	326	1,153	150	436
1963 .	2,917	257	1,327	188	604
1964	2,217	251	1,367	134	498
1965	2,486	500	1,411	156	1,415
1966 .	2,388	254	1,444	127	1,204
1967	3,170	381	2,124	117	848
1968 .	3,195	203	2,473	133	900

Source :

District Employment Officer, Amreli.

The statement supplies very useful data about the number of registrations, employment provided by the Exchange, those on the live register as also the number of employers in the district using the medium of Exchange for recruitment. The increase in registration, employment and persons on the live register during the period was due to the fact that the Health Department in the district recruited persons for carrying out spraying of D. D. T. from time to time. The decrease in the number of those placed in employment was on account of the enforcement of economy measures by Government which imposed a cut in the staff to the extent of ten per cent and an embargo on recruitment.

National Planning

Planning is necessary to achieve a balanced growth of different sectors of the economy of a region as also in raising the standard of living of the people. It brings about socio-economic advancement of the people by formulating definite schemes, fixing up of targets of progress in various sectors of the economy and in directing efforts to achieve them within a stipulated period of time. In this country, the planning era commenced with launching of the First Five Year Plan in 1951 which aimed at raising the living standards of the people by developing agriculture, industries and other sectors, thus opening new avenues of gainful employment and ensuring a richer and fuller life to the society. With this end in view, a comprehensive programme of planned economic development has been initiated in India after Independence. The State and district plans are formulated keeping in view the concept of Welfare State and implemented through the district administrative machinery. For each item of development a target is fixed and the estimates of expenditure are worked out to achieve the social and economic goals. The following statement gives sectoral expenditure incurred in the Amreli district since the launching of the First Five Year Plan.

STATEMENT IX.15

Expenditure under the different 'Heads' during the Three Five Year Plans and 1967-1968

(FIGURES IN LAKH OF RS.)

Sl. No.	Name of the Head	Ist Plan		IInd Plan		IIIrd Plan	
		Expenditure in Rs	Percentage of total expenditure	Expenditure in Rs.	Percentage of total expenditure	Expenditure in Rs.	Percentage of total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Agricultural programme	2 51	2 94	39.41	9.70	31 69	6 66
2.	Community Development and Panchayats	10.84	12.66	42.76	10.52	33 64	7 07
3.	Co-operation	2.12	2.48	18 70	4.60	17.27	3.63
4.	Irrigation	12 18	14.22	135.50	33.35	145 49	30.59
5.	Animal husbandry	.	..	0.12	0.02	2.06	0.43
6.	Forests			1.04	0 26	3 18	0.67
7.	Fisheries	0.84	0 98	0.28	0.07	6 32	1.33
8.	Cottage industries	1 27	1.48	3.81	0.94	.	..
9.	Roads and buildings	38 82	45 33	81.29	20 01	121 26	25.50
10.	Education	11.48	13 40	46.31	11.40	39 59	8.32
11.	Health	1 13	1.32	7 34	1.81	61 96	13.03
12.	Welfare of backward classes	..	.	3.48	0 86	8 68	1.83
13.	Local bodies	4 45	5 19	26 20	6 45	.	..
14.	Industries and mining	..	..	.	..	2 13	0 45
15.	Miscellaneous (statistics) publicity and others	.	..	..	..	2 35	0.49
	Total	**85.64**	**100.00**	**406.24**	**100.00**	**475.62**	**100.00**

STATEMENT IX.15—*contd*

Sl No 1	Name of the Head 2	Total expenditure during three plans Rs 9	Percentage of total expenditure of three plans 10	Expenditure during 1967 11	Percentage 12	1968 13	Percentage 14
1.	Agricultural programme	73 61	7 61	5 32	8 70	6 86	8 48
2	Community Development and Panchayats	87 24	9 02	3 55	5 80	4 41	5 45
3	Co-operation	38 09	3 94	0 69	1 13	3 12	3.86
4	Irrigation	293 17	30 30	21 79	35 62	20 33	25 14
5	Animal husbandry	2 16	0 22	0 78	1 28	0 41	0 51
6.	Forests	4 22	0 44	2 26	3 69	1 01	1 25
7.	Fisheries	7 34	0 77	0 49	0 80	2 86	3.54
8.	Cottage industries	5 08	0 53		.	..	..
9	Roads and buildings	241 37	24 95	11 46	18 74	14 98	18 53
10	Education	97 38	10 07	4 85	7 93	8 61	10 65
11.	Health	70 43	7 28	8 07	13 19	15 78	19 51
12.	Welfare of backward classes	12 16	1 26	1 64	2.68	2 29	2.83
13.	Local bodies	30 65	3 17	.	..	..	..
14	Industries and mining	2 13	0 22	0 25	0 41	0 16	0.20
15.	Miscellaneous (statistics) publicity and others	2 35	0 24	0 02	0 03	0 04	0.05
	Total ..	967 50	100 00	61 17	100.00	80 86	100.00

Source

For 1st and 2nd Five Year Plans *District Census Handbook* 1961, Amreli and "*Pragatine Panthe*", Amreli District
For 3rd Five Year Plan and onwards Collector and District Development Officer, Amreli.

Out of total of Rs. 967.50 lakhs spent during three Plan periods, the first plan accounted for Rs 85.64 lakhs, the Second Plan Rs. 406.24 lakhs and the Third Plan Rs. 475.62 lakhs. In the years 1967 and 1968, the expenditure incurred amounted to Rs. 61 17 lakhs and Rs. 80.86 lakhs respectively.

Considering the total outlay in the Three Plans, irrigation (major and minor) claimed the lion's share. Agriculture being the main stay of economy, increase in output could only be achieved if water in sufficient quantities is made available for agricultural production. An amount of Rs. 293.17 lakhs or 30 30 per cent of the total expenditure in the three Plans was spent on irrigation. To accelerate the progress of agriculture in the Amreli district, the same tempo has been maintained for the years 1967 and 1968 when Rs. 21.79 lakhs (35·62 per cent) and Rs. 20.33 lakhs (25·14 per cent) respectively have been spent. The next important programme was construction of 'Roads and Buildings', as the transport and communication facilities had been highly deficient in the district. The outlay under this head amounted to Rs. 241 37 lakhs or 24·95 per cent of the total or three Plans. To raise the levels of literacy which were poor, expansion of educational facilities claimed Rs 97 38 lakhs or 10.07 per cent followed by 'Community Development and Panchayats,' 87.24 lakhs or 9·02 per cent Co-operation, local bodies and welfare and Backward Classes accounted for 3·94, 3·17 and 1·26 per cent of the total outlay incurred during the Three Plan periods.

'Irrigation' and 'Roads and Buildings' were the dominant sectors of development during the Three Plans. This was continued in subsequent years 1967 and 1968. Thereafter, greater stress was laid on improving the health of the people and expenditure incurred amounted to Rs. 8.07 lakhs or 13·19 per cent and Rs. 15.75 lakhs or 19·51 per cent respectively in 1967 and 1968 and Rs 4.85 lakhs or 7·93 per cent and Rs. 8 61 lakhs or 10·65 per cent after education in these years Relatively large expenditure has also been incurred on other heads, *viz*, 'Agricultural Programme', 'Community Development and Panchayats,' 'Fisheries', 'Welfare of Backward Classes', etc, as can be seen from the above statement.

The First Five Year Plan was more or less in nature of preparing the ground-work for various development activities in the district The Second and Third Plans were quite ambitious. The Second Plan under the concept of "Mixed Economy" aimed at laying the foundation of economic progress on a wider scale It also attempted to accelerate the rate of growth and initiate a strategy for achieving long-term objectives of development. The Third Plan aimed at increasing the tempo of development to march towards self-sustained economy. The economic development made during each successive Plan reflects the determined efforts of

the Government and the people aiming at improving the economic condition and the levels of living. Systematic efforts for the removal of various handicaps from which the district suffered were made by undertaking planned programme of development in each successive Five Year Plans. The implementation of the Plans have resulted in several structural changes in the fields of agriculture including animal husbandry, fisheries, irrigation, co-operation, electrification, industrialisation, transport and communications and social services including education, health, housing, labour and labour welfare and welfare of the Backward Classes.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The Community Development Programme is a bold effort to mobilise public enthusiasm, co-operation and to raise the standard of living of the people. It was introduced with a view to enlisting popular participation in implementation of the development programmes in the blocks. It is altogether a unique and scientific endeavour for an integrated approach to the problems of rural development based on public participation and working through representative institutions of the people. This programme was first inaugurated in the district in October, 1953 by starting Community Development Blocks at Rajula, Jafrabad and Babra, respectively. At first, three types of development blocks known as National Extension Service, Community Development, and post-intensive blocks were conceived. They marked three different phases of development of rural areas. The National Extension Service was preparatory period when the area was prepared for receiving a heavy dose of development during the next stage of Community Development. The assumption was that thereafter it would be sufficiently developed and the people would keep up the tempo of progress already achieved. The programme since then has undergone various organisational changes as a result of the recommendations of the Balwantray Mehta Committee appointed by the Planning Commission in 1956-57 to examine the working of the Community Development Programme and related matters and to recommend measures for improving its quality and content. In pursuance of its recommendations the distinction between the N. E. S. stage, intensive development stage, and the post-intensive stage was abolished from 1-4-1958 and all the blocks under the All-India Programme except blocks in the community development stage, which had then not completed 3 years, were classified into stage I and stage II blocks, with revised financial patterns and periods of operations. The Community Development blocks on completing stage I period would enter stage II. A stage I block has a five year period of operation with a ceiling of expenditure of Rs. 12 lakhs. It is the intensive development phase in which the people's participation is to be promoted as a means of community development by closer association of gram panchayats with the formulation of plans for their respective areas. The degree of success attained during the first stage will be evidenced by the

growth and functioning of self-reliant rural Communities which is the basic objective of the programme. After completing stage I, the blocks will enter stage II and then the post-stage II of the programme

On 31st March, 1968, there were 10 Community Development Blocks in the district, of which one was stage I block at Kunkavav, 4 stage II blocks at Amreli, Khamba, Lathi and Lilia and 5 post-stage II blocks at Kodinar, Rajula, Babra, Dhari and Jafrabad Detailed particulars of the starting of blocks in villages, population covered, expenditure incurred, people's contribution, upto 31st March, 1968 are given in the following statement.

STATEMENT IX.16

Community Development Programme, Amreli District upto 31-3-1968

Sl No.	Name of the Block	No. of villages covered	Area covered (Hectares)	Population covered (1961)	Date of starting the Block	Total expenditure incurred upto 31-3-68	Total contribution by the people upto 31-3-68
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Stage I Blocks						
1.	Kunkavav	68	79,798-68	92,176	1-4-1956	886,031-00	289,924-00
	Total of Stage I Block	*68*	*79,798-68*	*92,176*		*886,031-00*	*289,924-00*
	Stage II Blocks						
2	Amreli	67	76,289-18	109,961	1-4-1958	1,233,879-00	174,648-00
3.	Khambha	36	40,847-44	28,057	2-10-1954	114,351-17	..
4	Lathi	52	61,074-85	68,890	19-4-1954	2,436,484-10	..
5	Lilia	37	39,678-76	41,805	1-4-1963	254,968-89	46,314-00
	Total of Stage II Blocks Post-stage II Blocks	*192*	*217,890-23*	*248,713*	.	*4,039,683-16*	*220,962-00*
6.	Kodinar	64	48,572-42	76,065	26-1-1954	614,262-22	107,596-00
7	Rajula	93	75,377-36	77,560	1-10-1953	3,227,996-73	134,491-16
8	Babra	57	80,189-10	55,861	2-10-1953	1,214,700-00	158,727-00
9.	Dhari	88	102,348-09	81,707	2-10-1954	1,622,907-00	162,765-00
10.	Jafrabad	44	37,813-15	35,741	24-2-1963	294,350-18	951-00
	Total of Post-stage II Blocks	*346*	*344,300-12*	*326,934*	.	*6,974,216-13*	*564,530-16*

Source :
District Statistical Officer, Amreli

Within a period of ten years, *i. e.*, from 1958-1968, the entire district has been covered by the Community Development Programme which included activities like agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation, land reclamation and improvement, health and rural sanitation, education, communications, rural arts and crafts, etc. The total expenditure incurred on these schemes upto 31st March, 1968 was Rs. 6,974,216, people's contribution being Rs. 564,530 or 8·90 per cent. These figures together with the details about physical achievements upto 31st March, 1966 given in Statement IX.17 illustrate the fact that the Community Development Programme has created in the countryside a growing awareness of felt needs and faith in the people's ability and desire to fulfill them through their own efforts and resources.

STATEMENT IX.17

Physical Achievement in the Community Development Blocks (since their inception) upto the end of March, 1968

Sl No. 1	Name of the item 2	Unit 3	Achievement 4
I.	**Agriculture**		
	(a) Distribution of improved seeds	Quintals	59,540
	(b) Distribution of chemical fertilisers ..	„	729,990
	(c) Compost pits dug	Number	18,511
	(d) Fruit trees planted	„	39,413
II	Irrigations and Reclamations		
	(a) Area brought under irrigation by the end of Third Five Year Plan-1965-66	Hectares	42,877
	(b) Area counter bunded during 1959-69 ..	„	31,620
III	Animal Husbandry		
	(a) Pedigree bull supplied	Number	138
	(b) Pedigree birds supplied	„	1,473
	(c) Cattle inoculated	„	95,051
IV	Health and Sanitation		
	(a) Water wells constructed or repaired ..	Number	16,355
	(b) Drainage constructed . ..	Sq. m	2,034
	(c) Sokage pits constructed	Number	1,868
V.	Education		
	(a) Schools converted into basic type ..	Number	212
	(b) School buildings constructed during three plans	„	280
	(c) Adults made literate , ...	„	26,794
VI.	Communication		
	(a) *Kucha* roads constructed	Kms.	480
VII	Rural Arts and Crafts		
	(a) Persons trainee in training-*cum*-production centres . .	Number	..
	(b) Additional member of co-operative societies made	„	28,852
	(c) Women's clubs started	„	119
	(d) Youth clubs started	„	341
	(e) Farmers' union started	„	176

Source :

District Statistical Officer, Amreli.

Trends of Development

Economic progress of a region depends on several factors, important among them being its natural resources, opportunities for their exploitation, availability of finance, political structure and social set-up obtaining on a particular date. Prior to Independence, Amreli was under the Gaikwad regime. Isolated as it was from the seat of Governmental activity, Baroda, it received perhaps the least attention from the Rulers of Baroda. The general aversion to adopt new trends, a peculiar feature in the most of the princely States in Kathiawar, came in the way of introduction of measures calculated to bring about economic development and raising the living standards of the people. There were no developed ports like Bhavnagar, Bedi, etc., in Amreli, whatever the ports, they were but minor fishing ports, the noticeable item of exports being salt only. The economic structure then in vogue was predominantly agricultural, supplemented by some of the traditional rural crafts operated on a household basis. Even the agricultural conditions of the time were not conducive for adopting improved farming practices under the fuedal system of land management prior to Independence. The cultivators were mere tenants-at-will, who could be evicted at the sweet will of the landlord, *i. e.*, Jagirdar, etc. The system of cropshare whereunder assessment was fixed in kind, left for the cultivator barely sufficient stocks to maitain himself and his family. There was neither security of tenure nor fixity of rent. Under these circumstances, the agriculturalists naturally had no incentive to produce more. After the State's merger into the Bombay State in 1949, several measures of reforms were initiated and implemented with a view to bringing Amreli in line with other parts of the State. The multiplicity of cessess were done away with, and a bold land policy aiming at the introduction of various agrarian reforms, *i. e.*, making the tenants occupants of the land they tilled, were initiated. As a result of implementation of these measures, the details of which have been reviewed in the chapter of Revenue Administration of this Gazetteer, the cultivator has been enabled to become the occupant of the land held by him on payment of a fixed annual assessment in the case of Khalsa lands and reasonable compensation in other cases The peasantry has realised the necessity and utility of improved farm practices which are being extensively adopted, with the financial and other assistance made available by the Government. These measures have had their inevitable impact on the general improvement in the economic condition of the agricultural classes. The benefits of increased output are realised by the cultivating classes who have now begun to use scientific methods and improved seeds, manures and mechanical appliances like tractors, etc.

Measures to promote and develop the non-agricultural sector have also been taken simultaneously The former currency, customs dues, and weights and measures have now been replaced by the introduction of decimal system both in currency and coinage and weights and measures.

Various facilities and special concessions are being offered by the Government for the establishment of new industries both in the public and private sector. The number of new industries like the State Transport Workshops at Amreli and Bagasara and power houses at Bagasara, Rajula and Lathi have been set up under the Five Year Plans. A scheme of rural electrification whereunder the villages of the district will be provided electricity both on the farms as well as for domestic uses is being implemented. It is proposed to provide 68 mw., of electricity under this scheme. This will help setting up of turbines as well as installation of electricity motors on wells for boosting up agricultural production. A sugar factory, *viz.*, "*Shree Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandli Ltd.*," at Kodinar with a large installed capacity of about 30,000 tones of sugar per annuam has come up in the co-operative sector. A fish meal plant for the production of nitrogenous fertilisers has been set-up at Jafrabad. Salt, groundnut oil, and allied industries which are already in existence have expanded their overall production capacities. Trade and commerce have expanded *pari-passu* as a result of expansion of transport facilities. Development of fisheries has also been remarkable and annual output in the district is roughly 15 per cent of the total State's catch, with possibilities of future expansion. New avenues of augmenting production and services and tapping the latent resources have been opened up in the district. All these factors go to show that the district has considerable potential for socio economic development

STATEMENT IX.8

Wholesale Prices of Important Agricultural Commodities

(IN RS AND PAISE PER QUINTAL)

Sl. No.	Name of the commodities	1957-58 Amreli district	1958-59 Amreli district	1959-60 Amreli centre	1959-60 Lathi centre	1959-60 Rajula centre
1.	Rice	25.18	28.50	27.87	28.20	33.65
2.	Wheat	20.86	22.99	26.50	21.34	23.85
3.	*Jowar*	14.53	14.76	14.47	15.21	14.33
4.	*Bajri*	17.87	17.76	18.96	17.92	18.48
5.	Gram	14 98	18.35	19.37	15.87	16.14
6.	*Udid*	18.80	18.37	19.25	18.00	27.48
7.	Cotton	25 32	33 25	N. A.	26.92	28.50
8.	Groundnut (with shell)	18 18	19.25	21.74	21.58	20.00
9.	Sesamum	31.97	27 08	N. A.	36.09	N. A.
10.	Chillies	21 46	42.98	N. A.	103.16	100 58

Sl No	Name of the commodities	Dec 1960 Amreli centre	1961 Amreli centre	1961 Dhari centre	1961 Kodinar centre	1962 Amreli centre	1962 Dhari centre	1962 Kodinar centre
1.	*Jowar* ...	41 19	39 17	43 01	42 83	46 28	45 66	40 54
2.	*Bajri* ...	54 68	53.85	53 53	50 79	57 72	54.12	48.48
3	Wheat ...	53.76	52 28	50.15	48 86	54 16	50 46	48.15
4.	Rice (Fine) ...	N. A	145 77	146 74	114 59	126.47	121 46	136 84
5.	Groundnut oil ..	*66 32	204 27	213 21	N. A.	183.94	190 89	186 93
6.	*Tur dal* . .	N. A.	79 88	N. A.	N. A	81.03	80.18	85 16
7.	*Gur*	N. A	35 41	N. A	50 27	61 65	74 20	61 10
8.	Gram *dal* . .	N. A	52 32	57 35	57 45	54 37	55 97	55 02

N. A =Not available

* Price of Groundnut

Source :

1. *District Statistical Abstract Amreli, District.*
2. *Quarterly Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, Bureau of Economics and Statistics.

STATEMENT IX.8—concld.

Sl. No.	Name of the commodities	Dec. 1963 Amreli centre	Dec. 1964 Amreli centre	Dec. 1965 Amreli centre	Dec. 1966 Amreli centre	Dec. 1967 Amreli centre	Sept. 1968 Amreli centre
1.	*Jowar*	35.75	62 50	67.50	75 00	69.00	80 50
2.	*Bajri*	48 43	80 75	82.50	95 00	100.00	88 00
3.	Wheat (Coarse)	58 12	83 50	75.00	100 00	110.00	92 50
4.	Rice (Fine) . ..	105 00	125 00	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
5.	Groundnut oil	172.63	220 00	272 50	382 50	326 00	369.00
6.	*Tur dal*	116.25	152 50	140.00	135 00	252 50	177 00
7.	*Gur*	113 75	80 00	47 50	90 00	185 00	217 00
8.	Gram *dal*	65 15	151.00	150.00	200 00	252 50	117 00

STATEMENT IX.10

Average Daily Wages of Workers for Certain Selected Places of Amreli District

AMRELI

(NORMAL WORKING HOURS-8)

Sl. No.	Type of labour		July 64	Jan. 65	July 65	Jan. 67	July 67	Jan. 68
1.	Skilled labour							
	(a) Carpenters	..	6-00	N. A.	6-00	6-00	6-00	8-00
	(b) Blacksmiths	..	5-00	,,	7-00	6-00	6-00	7-00
	(c) Cobblers	..	..	,,	..	5-00	..	..
2.	Field labour							
	(a) Men	..	2-50		2-50	5-00	5-00	5-00
	(b) Women	..	1-50		2-00	3-00	3-00	3-00
	(c) Children	..	1-25		1-50	2-00	2-00	2-00
3.	Other agricultural labour							
	(a) Men	.	2-00		5-00	3-00	3-00	4-00
	(b) Women	..	1-50		5-00	2-00	2-00	2-50
	(c) Children	..	1-50		5-00	1-00	1-00	1-50
4.	Herdsmen @							
	(a) Men	..	..		..	..	..	5-00
	(b) Women	..	..		..	..	..	3-00
	(c) Children	..	..		..	..	..	2-00

BABRA

Sl. No.	Type of labour		Jan. 64	Jan. 65	July 65	Jan. 66	Jan. 67	July 67
1.	Skilled labour							
	(a) Carpenters	..	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	7-00	7-00
	(b) Blacksmiths	..	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00
	(c) Cobblers	..	5-50	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00
2.	Field labour							
	(a) Men	..	2-50	1-75	3-00	3-00	3-50	3-50
	(b) Women	..	1-75	1-25	2-00	2-00	2-50	2-50
	(c) Children	..	1-25	..	1-50	1-50	2-00	2-00
3.	Other ordinary agricultural labour							
	(a) Men	..	2-50	2-00	1-75	1-75	3-50	3-50
	(b) Women	..	1-50	1-50	1-25	1-25	2-50	2-50
	(c) Children	..	..	..	1-00	1-00	1-50	1-50
4.	Herdsmen							
	(a) Men	..	..	..	2-50	2-50	2-00	2-00
	(b) Women	..	..	..	1-50	1-50	2-00	2-00
	(c) Children	..	..		1-25	1-25	1-50	1-50

N. A.=Not available

@Per cattle per month.

STATEMENT IX.10—*contd.*

DHARI

Sl. No.	Type of labour	Jan. 64	July 64	Jan. 65	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	July 67	Jan. 68
1.	**Skilled labour**									
	(a) Carpenters	6-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	7-50	7-50
	(b) Blacksmiths	8-50	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00	8-00
	(c) Cobblers	..		7-00	8-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	..	.
2.	Field labour	..								
	(a) Men	3-00	3-50	3-00	3-00	3-00	3-00	3-00	3-00	3-50
	(b) Women	2-00	2-50	2-00	2-50	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-50
	(c) Children	1-50	1-50	1-25	1-50	1-00	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50
3.	Other agricultural labour									
	(a) Men	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-50	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-50
	(b) Women	1-00	1-25	1-00	2-00	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	2-00
	(c) Children	.	..	.	..	..		..		

JAFRABAD

Sl No.	Type of labour	Jan. 65	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	Jan. 68
1.	Skilled labour						
	(a) Carpenters	5-50	5-50	6-00	7-00	5-00	4-00
	(b) Blacksmiths	6-00	6-00	6-00	7-00	5-00	3-75
	(c) Cobblers	5-50	5-00	3-00	6-00	.	..
2.	Field labour						
	(a) Men	2-00	4-00	3-00	3-00	2-00	2-00
	(b) Women	1-50	2-50	2-00	2-00	1-50	1-75
	(c) Children	1-00	1-50	2-00	1-00	1-00	1-00
3	Other agricultural labour						
	(a) Men	3-00	3-00	3-00	3-00	2-00	2-00
	(b) Women	2-50	2-25	2-00	2-00	1-50	1-75
	(c) Children	..	..	1-25	1-00	1-00	1-00
4.	Herdsmen						
	(a) Men		2-00		3-00	2-00	1-50
	(b) Women		1-50	.	2-00	..	..
	(c) Children		1-00		1-00	1-00	1-00

STATEMENT IX.10—*contd.*

KHAMBHA

Sl. No.	Type of labour		Jan. 65	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	Jan. 68
1.	Skilled labour							.
	(a) Carpenters	..	5-00	4-00	4-00	6-00	6-00	6-00
	(b) Blacksmiths	..	5-00	4-00	4-00	6-00	6-00	6-00
	(c) Cobblers	.	4-00	4-00	3-00	5-00	5-00	..
2.	Field labour							
	(a) Men	..	2-50	2-50	2-00	2-50	3-00	2-50
	(b) Women	..	2-00	2-00	1-50	2-00	2-50	2-00
	(c) Children	..	1-00	1-00	1-00	1-25	1-50	1-50
3.	Other agricultural labour							
	(a) Men	..	3-00	2-50	2-00	2-50	2-50	2-50
	(b) Women	..	2-00	1-00	1-50	2-00	2-00	2-00
	(c) Children	..	..		.		.	..

KODINAR

Sl No.	Type of labour		Jan. 64	July 64	Jan. 65	July 65	July 66	Jan 67	July 67
1.	Skilled labour								
	(a) Carpenters	..	6-00	5-00	5-50	5-00	6-00	6-00	6-00
	(b) Blacksmiths	.	6-00	5-00	5-25	5-00	5-00	5-50	7-00
	(c) Cobblers	.	5-00	4-50	5-00	4-50	5-00	5-00	5-00
2.	Field labour								
	(a) Men	..	3-00	2-25	3-00	2-50	2-50	2-50	2-50
	(b) Women	..	2-00	1-50	2-50	2-25	2-60	2-00	2-00
	(c) Children	..	1-50	1-25	2-00	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-00
3.	Other agricultural labour								
	(a) Men	..	3-00	2-00	2-50	2-25	3-00	3-00	3-00
	(b) Women	..	2-00	1-50	2-25	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00
	(c) Children	..	1-50	1-25	2-00	1-50			.
4.	Herdsmen								
	(a) Men	..	2-00	2-00	2-50	2-00	..	.	.
	(b) Women	..	1-75	1-50	2-25	1-75	..	.	..
	(c) Children	..	1-25	1-25	2-00	1-50	..	.	.

STATEMENT IX.10—*contd.*

KUNKAWAV

Sl. No.	Type of labour	Jan. 64	July 64	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	Jan. 68
1.	Skilled labour							
	(a) Carpenters ..	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	6-00	9-00
	(b) Blacksmiths ..	5-00	5-00	6-00	5-00	5-00	5-00	9-00
	(c) Cobblers ..	..	..	..	6-00	6-00	..	.
2.	Field labour							
	(a) Men ..	2-50	2-50	5-00	2-50	3-00	3-50	3-50
	(b) Women ..	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-50	2-50
	(c) Children .	1-25	1-00	1-25	1-25	1-50	1-75	1-50
3.	Other agricultural labour							
	(a) Men ..	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	1-75	..	3-00
	(b) Women .	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-25	..	2-00
	(c) Children ..	1-00	1-00	1-25	1-00	1-00	..	1-00

LATHI

Sl. No	Type of labour	July 64	Jan 65	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	July 67	Jan 68
1	Skilled labour								
	(a) Carpenters .	7-00	7-00	7-00	6-00	6-00	7-00	7-00	7-00
	(b) Blacksmiths .	7-00	7-00	8-00	7-00	6-00	7-00	7-00	7-00
	(c) Cobblers .	7-00	7-00	7-00	6-00	5-00	6-00	6-00	7-00
2	Field labour								
	(a) Men .	2-50	3-00	2-50	2-50	2-00	2-50	2-50	3-50
	(b) Women	1-75	2-50	2-00	2-00	1-50	2-00	2-00	2-00
	(c) Children	1-25	1-50	1-50	1-00	1-00	1-50	1-50	1-50
3.	Other agricultural labour								
	(a) Men .	2-00	2-50	2-50	2-00	2-00	2-50	2-50	2-00
	(b) Women	1-25	2-00	2-00	1-50	1-50	2-00	2-00	1-50
	(c) Children	.		.	.		.	..	.

STATEMENT IX.10—*concld.*

LILIA

Sl. No.	Type of labour	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	July 67	Jan. 68
1.	Skilled labour						
	(a) Carpenters ..	5-50	5-00	5-00	5-00	6-00	8-00
	(b) Blacksmiths	6-00	7-00	..	..	..	..
	(c) Cobblers ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
2.	Field labour						
	(a) Men .	3-00	3-00	3-00	2-00	2-00	3-00
	(b) Women ...	2-00	2-00	2-00	1-50	2-00	2-00
	(c) Children ...	0-75	1-50	1-00	1-00	1-50	1-50
3.	Other agricultural labour						
	(a) Men .	2-50	2-50	2-00	1-50	2-00	2-00
	(b) Women ...	1-50	2-00	1-50	1-25	1-50	1-50
	(c) Children	..	..	..	..	1-00	1-00

RAJULA

Sl. No.	Type of labour	Jan. 64	July 64	Jan. 65	July 65	Jan. 66	July 66	Jan. 67	July 67
1	Skilled labour								
	(a) Carpenters ...	4-00	4-00	4-00	4-00	4-00	4-00	4-00	4-00
	(b) Blacksmiths ..	3-50	3-50	3-50	3-50	3-50	3-50	3-50	3-50
	(c) Cobblers ..	3-25	3-25	3-25	3-25	3-25	3-25	3-25	3-25
2	Field labour								
	(a) Men ...	3-00	3-50	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-50
	(b) Women ..	2-00	2-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	2-00
	(c) Children ..	1-25	1-25	1-25	1-25	1-25	1-25	1-25	1-25
3.	Other agricultural labour								
	(a) Men ..	2-00	2-50	2-00	2-50	2-00	2-00	2-00	2-00
	(b) Women .	1-50	2-00	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50	1-50
	(c) Children	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..

PART V—PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Phases of Administrative Evolution

Before integration of the States in 1949 the Amreli district belonged to the former Baroda State. It had a chequered administrative history. Its acquisition by the Marathas and subsequently by the Gaekwad has been very aptly described in the chapter on History.

The Amreli district so acquired consisted of blocks of territory of which Amreli, Dhari and Damnagar were fairly compact and the remaining areas of Kodinar, Ratanpur and Bhimkatta were detached. In the villages cess were held by *Mul-girasias*.

The administrative set-up of the district continued unchanged till 1949 when the Indian States merged in the Indian Union and the Ghogho mahal of the former Ahmedabad district and the Okhamandal district of the Baroda State came to be amalgamated with the original Amreli district. The second re-organisation of the district was brought about, when certain areas from the adjacent districts of Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh were merged. The Ghogho mahal was merged in the Bhavnagar district and the Okhamandal taluka in the Jamnagar district. Thus during the space of twenty years the district has undergone re-organisation twice in 1949 and 1959. The bifurcation of the former Bombay State into Gujarat and Maharashtra has not affected the size of the district.

Administrative set-up during the Baroda State

As mentioned above, the Baroda State exercised jurisdiction over the major portion of the present district. The Baroda State followed the pattern of the district administration of the British India with the result that the administrative echelons and hierarchy of the Baroda State conformed to those of the British India. The variations in designations were made to suit local conditions and needs. The district was divided into two subdivisions (Prants), i. e., Amreli and Kodinar. Amreli subdivision had two mahals and two peta-mahals, whereas Kodinar subdivision had two mahals and one peta-mahal as under:—

Amreli subdivision :—

1. Amreli mahal (taluka),
2. Damnagar mahal (taluka),
3. Bhimkatta peta-mahal (mahal) and
4. Ratanpur peta-mahal (mahal).

Kodinar subdivision :— 1. Kodinar mahal (taluka),

2. Dhari mahal (taluka) and

3. Khambha peta-mahal (mahal).

At the head of the district administration was the 'Suba' who corresponded to the existing Collector of the district. The head of a *Vibhag* (Prant) was 'Naib-Suba' (corresponding to the present Prant Officer, *i. e.*, Assistant or Deputy Collector). Vahivatdar was the head of the mahal and the Mahalkari was in charge of the peta-mahal. At the village level, the Patel was the lowest functionary in the administration. In between Patel and Vahivatdar there was an intermediate functionary called Tajvijdar, who was the counter-part of the present day Circle Inspector.

The Suba was both Collector and District Magistrate and, therefore, he was looking after the law and order problems of the district as well as the matters relating to land revenue, income-tax and other revenues. The Naib-Suba like the present Prant Officer was an assistant to the Suba whose functions were to inspect the records and work of the mahals and peta-mahals. The Vahivatdar and Mahalkari like the present day Mamlatdar and Mahalkari, were responsible for the collection of land revenue and taxes and maintenance of boundary marks. He was also a Second Class Magistrate with jurisdiction in respect of certain offences. The Tajvijdar used to supervise the work of the village Patels and the Talatis in his *tappa* (circle). The Patel was the headman of the village in revenue and police matters. He was also an *ex-officio* Sarpanch of the Village Panchayat. He was assisted by the Talati in the affairs of the panchayat.

The administrative set-up so far as the police was concerned had also a striking resemblance with the present day police set-up. The Police Naib-Suba was the head of the district police like the District Superintendent of Police at present. Police Inspector was in charge of a *Vibhag* (subdivision), Fauzdar in charge of taluka and Naib-Fauzdar in charge of a small Thana.

The District and the Sessions Judge was the head of district judiciary. He was helped by the Munsiffs at mahal (taluka) level. The Varistha Court (High Court) was at the State level, having jurisdiction over all judicial offices in the State.

The District Judge had jurisdiction to try original civil suits upto any amount, to hear small cause suits upto Rs. 500 and to hear appeals from the decrees and orders of Munsiffs. In criminal matters, he used to try cases committed to his court by the subordinate Magistrates.

For every taluka there was a Munsiff having civil jurisdiction upto Rs. 10,000 and powers of a First Class Magistrate in criminal cases.

This, in brief, is an account of the administration that prevailed in Amreli district during the rule of Baroda State.

ADMINISTRATION AFTER INDEPENDENCE

With the merger of the Baroda State in the Bombay State on May 1949, the Amreli Prant became a district of the Bombay State on 1-8-1949, when Okhamandal and Ghogho were added to it. As a result of merger of Baroda and other States, the Government was faced with a difficult task of placing the administrative machinery of the merged areas on a uniform level. Its evolution in the present form may be considered into three distinct phases. During the first phase, the entire structure of the administration was re-organised on the pattern of a district, which became a principal unit of administration with intermediate functionaries at taluka and village levels. During the second phase, attempts were made to reform and rationalise the administration in order to implement the ideals of a Welfare State by making the administrative machinery development-oriented by increasing association of the people in implementation of the development programmes During the final phase, the administrative set-up was democratised to suit the changing needs of time by introduction of the Panchayati Raj These phases are now examined in detail.

In the district the Collector became the key functionary and the pivot of administration. His functions were not limited to the collection of land revenue and maintenance of law and order but extended to implementation of development programmes. In the administration of land revenue, he was concerned not only with the maintenance of land records, collection of land revenue and administering the provisions of the Land Revenue Code but also with the implementation of land reforms which were introduced immediately after Independence for abolition of intermediaries between the tiller of the soil and Government. As there was complete separation of judiciary from the executive, his judicial powers were mainly magisterial and restricted to the maintenance of law and order in the district with the help of the District Superintendent of Police. On the development side, he co-ordinated the activities of various other departments such as agriculture, animal husbandry, co-operation, social welfare and panchayats.

The second phase began with the increasing association of the public with the welfare activities undertaken by the State. The Collector was also the chairman of the District Development Board, which looked after the development works in rural areas, particularly in the field of agriculture,

irrigation, community development, co-operation, social education, panchayats, etc. A further step in the direction of popular association and local self-Government, was taken by the establishment of panchayats in villages or groups of villages and municipalities in towns with a view to associating the people with the administration of the villages and towns. They were, thus, enabled to take active interest in schemes of public welfare and utility and accelerate the pace of constructive activities for the amelioration of the people in general. Village panchayats were also invested with powers to try petty criminal offences and certain civil disputes.

Panchayati Raj

The third phase in the evolution of the administrative structure appeared when the Gujarat Panchayats Act of 1961 was implemented in 1963 with a view to democratising the entire administrative machinery from the village to the district level. The main objective of the Panchayati Raj is to enable the people of each area to achieve intensive and continuous development for the entire population. It offers new avenues of service to the people rather than opportunities for exercise of authority. It comprehends both the democratic institutions and the extension services through which the development programmes are executed. For this purpose, the integrity of the structure of technical and administrative services should be fully ensured. This revolutionary change in the administrative set-up led to the bifurcation of functions and responsibilities of the Collector, who now retains certain powers in respect of land revenue administration, maintenance of law and order, elections, civil supply and others not transferred to the Panchayati Raj bodies. All the development activities which were formerly within his charge as well as some of the functions, under the Land Revenue Code, have, as will be seen later in the chapter on "Local Self-Government" been transferred to the Panchayati Raj bodies constituted under the Gujarat Panchayats Act. Under this set-up, there are 3 bodies, namely, the District Panchayat, Taluka Panchayat and Gram or Nagar Panchayat. The principal executive officer of the District Panchayat is the District Development Officer, mainly drawn from the Indian Administrative Service. The Taluka Development Officer is likewise the principal officer at the level of the Taluka Panchayat and the Secretary, Gram Panchayat, at the village level.

Role of the Collector

The Collector used to be the pivot of the district administration. He is recognised as the agent of Government in the district for all purposes whether he is specially empowered or not. Because of the overriding importance of his big role as well as his proximity to the people, he was considered the *ma-bap* of the people, as the ultimate point of reference and redressal of grievances. Besides supervising the collection of land

revenue, the duties of collection of excise and other special taxes and the stamp revenue also devolved upon the Collector as the executive head of the district. Before the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961 came into force, he co-ordinated the work of the different departments and ensured implementation of the development schemes in the district. Being the principal revenue authority in the district, all revenue functions were exercised by the Collector prior to the implementation of this Act. But on the introduction of the Panchayati Raj in 1963, the collection of land revenue has been entrusted to the village panchayats. The Collector is further responsible for implementation of the land reform laws and the collection of fees, dues etc., recoverable under various Acts, such as the Bombay Irrigation Act, the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act, the Bombay Electricity Duty Act and the Gujarat Education Cess Act. There are also other Acts, which provide for the recoveries of other Government dues as arrears of land revenue. Under the Prohibition Act, the Collector is empowered to issue permits to liquor and drug addicts and recover assessment fees from shops permitted to sell liquor and drugs. He is also the chairman of the Prohibition Committee of the district. Over and above these major functions, the Collector is entrusted with the work of watching the proper implementation of the district level plan schemes retained with the State after implementation of Panchayati Raj.

Apart from the above civil functions, the Collector has to perform duties as the District Magistrate under section 17(1) of the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951), the District Superintendent of Police and the police force of the district are under the control of the District Magistrate. The District Superintendent of Police, who is the executive head of police exercises general powers subject to the orders of the District Magistrate. Besides being in control of the Police, the Collector as District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code, the Bombay Police Act and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. He is responsible for the prevention of nuisance and other allied matters under the Criminal Procedure Code and for proper administration of Jails and Sub-Jails to a certain extent. In his capacity as District Magistrate, he is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Indian Arms Acts, the Petroleum Act, the Explosive Act and the Poisons Act. Under the Factories Act, 1948, the District Magistrate is an Inspector for his district, in which capacity he has powers of inspection and supervision of factories, magazines, etc.

The Treasury

Prior to 1962, the District Treasury was under the overall charge of the Collector to whom the District Treasury Officer was subordinate. He

was responsible for all the cash, stamps, etc., received in the Treasury as also for the proper maintenance of accounts The Sub-Treasury establishments at the taluka and mahal headquarters formed part of the revenue establishments in the district From 1st April, 1962, the Sub-Treasury establishments were separated from the Revenue Administration and placed under the administrative control of the Director of Accounts and Treasuries working under the Finance Department. The Collector, however, continues to exercise general powers and functions as the head of the district administration The Treasury is, thus, under the direct control of the Finance Department, though the Collector exercises supervision over it as required under the Bombay Treasury Rules.

Quasi-judicial Functions

Among the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector, over and above the hearing of appeals from the Prant Officers under the Land Revenue Code and various other revenue laws, the following may be mentioned: (1) revisional powers under section 2? of the Mamlatdars' Courts Act which are delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector, (2) functions which the Collector performs in connection with the execution of Civil Court decrees (3) proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Acts (4) cases under the Bombay Government Premises (Eviction) Act and (5) powers exercised as District Magistrate under the Preventive Detention Act, when it was in force

Other Functions

Besides land revenue, land reforms and magisterial work, the Collector is in charge of various important duties connected with civil supplies, small savings land acquisition elections to the State Legislature and Parliament, Census etc As a District Registrar, he controls work of registration of documents within the district, supervises the work of Sub-Registrars at the taluka and Mahal levels and ensures proper performance of their duties as per the Indian Registration Act. Under the Famine Relief Code, 1951, the Collector is required to keep himself at all times informed about the agricultural conditions within the district, to organize relief measures and to draw a master plan for the district every year. With a view to accelerating the tempo of development of industries in the district and to achieve more effective co-ordination in providing infrastructure facilities to industries Government has designated Collector as *ex officio* Deputy Commissioner of Industries and delegated to him certain functions and powers for the allotment of factory sheds and open plots in the Government industrial estates, formulation of the District Master Plans and co-ordination of activities of various heads of offices and departments

Collector's Office

The two main branches in the Collector's office are : (i) Revenue and (ii) Supply, each of which is under a Deputy Collector The Deputy Collector in charge of revenue is also the Resident Deputy Collector and Personal Assistant to the Collector. The Deputy Collector looking after the supply branch is designated the District Supply Officer.

For the purpose of administration, the district is divided into two subdivisions, *viz.*, (a) Amreli subdivision comprising Amreli, Babra, Kunkavav-Vadia and Lathi talukas and Lilia mahal and (b) Rajula subdivision comprising Dhari, Kodinar and Rajula talukas and Jafrabad and Khambha mahals Both these subdivisions are headed by the Assistant Deputy Collectors also styled as Prant Officers who have their headquarters at Amreli The Taluke/Mahal heads are Mamlatdar/Mahalkaris who work under the Deputy/Assistant Collector of the subdivision

The Assistant/Deputy Collector is also a Sub-Divisional Magistrate for his subdivision After the separation of judiciary from the executive, he does not try criminal cases except certain proceedings under the Criminal Procedure Code The Mamlatdar/Mahalkari is the head of the revenue administration of the taluka/mahal level. He is for his charge what the Collector is for the district. By virtue of his office, he is also the Superintendent of the Taluka Sub-Jail and the Assistant Custodian of the Evacuee property under the Bombay Evacuee (Administration of Property) Act, 1949

JUDICIARY

Another important department at the district level is the Judicial Department headed by the District and Sessions Judge who exercises jurisdiction in matters, civil, criminal and appellate One noteworthy feature of the judicial administration in the Baroda State region was the complete separation of the judiciary and the executive effected as early as 1904. The powers of the High Court were exercised by the Varishtha Court with its Chief Justice and two prime judges appointed by the Maharaja Saheb Although the Varishtha Court was the biggest tribunal in the State, the powers of revising its decisions were reserved to the Huzur, who was advised in this regard by the Privy Council or Huzur Nyaya Sabha consisting of Legal Remembrancer, Hazur Kamdar and a Judge of the Varishtha Court. The members, after a regular hearing of the parties, reported their conclusions to His Highness for final orders Besides the Varishtha Court and the Huzur Nyaya Sabha, there were five courts of the District Judge, each located at every district headquarters, Assistant and Subordinate Judges and other Executive Magistrates and village Munsiffs.1

1 *The Baroda State Administration Report*, 1913-14.

After the integration of Amreli district into Bombay State, the Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions (Extension) Act, 1958 came into force from 1-9-1959. Accordingly it has divided the Magistracy into 'Judicial Magistrates' who are subordinate to the District and Sessions Judge and 'Executive Magistrates' who are subordinate to the District Magistrates. The Judicial set-up of the district is at present comprised of the District and Sessions Judge, one Civil Judge (Senior Division) and five Civil Judges (Junior Division).

Police

The District Superintendent of Police is the executive head of the district police force. The duties of the police force are mainly to prevent, detect and investigate the crime and maintain law and order It also controls the vehicular traffic in the district. The police is also called upon to render help when natural calamities like flood or earthquake, etc, occur It also helps in the prevention of fire whenever required. The District Superintendent of Police is assisted by two subdivisional Police Officers each in charge of subdivision These Officers are required to visit and supervise important crime investigation The work of investigation and detection of serious crimes is also entrusted to the Circle Police Officers posted at Dhari and Amreli which are also the headquarters of the subdivisional Police Officers There are 14 police stations in the district each in charge of a non-gazetted police officer known as Police Sub-Inspector who is primarily responsible for the maintenance of law and order and prevention and detection of crime in his area Under them there are 16 outposts located in troublesome and remote areas to help the police station

District Development Officer

In the Panchavati Raj, a District Development Officer, is appointed on the cadre of the Indian Administrative Service The executive power of the District Panchayat for carrying out the provisions of the Act vests in the District Development Officer subject to the orders of the President of the District Panchayat, he exercises all the powers as the Chief Executive Officer in regard to the administration and execution of development programmes

Health and Medical

The District Head of the Medical Department is the Civil Surgeon who is also the Superintendent of the Civil Hospital at Amreli The Cottage Hospital at Khambha and taluka level hospital at Lathi are also under the administrative control of the Civil Surgeon. The Primary Health Centres which are also a part of the Medical and Health Department are

supervised by the District Health Officer who is under the administrative control of the District Panchayat. His functions include prevention and control of epidemic diseases.

Other District Level Officers

The general pattern of administration has been completely transformed after Independence. A number of new departments, which did not exist in the past, have been brought into being to implement the objective of a welfare State. Besides Revenue, Judiciary and Police, which were the principal departments in Indian States, Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Rural Development, Panchayats, Public Works, Social Welfare and Education, in all their phases are now functioning with enlarged powers and resources under the District Panchayat having their functionaries at various levels of administration. The following is the list of district officers functioning at the district level :—

1. Collector and District Magistrate.
2. District and Sessions Judge.
3. District Superintendent of Police.
4. Prant Officer (Assistant Deputy Collector), Amreli Subdivision, Amreli.
5. Prant Officer (Assistant Deputy Collector), Rajula Subdivision, Amreli.
6. District Commandant of Home Guards.
7. Civil Surgeon.
8. Assistant District Registrar, Co-operative Societies.
9. District Educational Inspector.
10. District Supply Officer.
11. Assistant Examiner, Local Funds.
12. Social Welfare Officer (State).
13. Unit Officer, Malaria Eradication Scheme.
14. Unit Officer, Trachoma Control Unit.
15. Treasury Officer.

16. District Inspector of Excise and Prohibition.
17. Resident Deputy Collector.
18. Sales Tax Officer.
19. Subdivisional Soil Conservation Officer.
20. District Inspector of Land Records.
21. District Employment Officer
22. Subdivisional Forest Officer.
23. Cotton Breeder.
24 Depot Manager, State Transport, Amreli
25. Superintendent, K. K. Parekh Technical Institute.
26. Superintendent, Industrial Training Institute
27. Deputy Engineer, Roads and Buildings.
28. Deputy Engineer, Public Health Subdivision.
29. Deputy Engineer, Medi Subdivision
30. Superintendent, Sub-Jail.
31. Superintendent, Open Jail.
32 Technician, Rural Broadcasting
33 Industries Officer
34 Headquarter Sub-Registrar.
35 Assistant Agriculture Engineer.
36 Chief Officer, Probation of Offenders Act, 1938.
37 Superintendent and Probation Officer, Remand Home.
38 Royalty Inspector
39 District Information Officer
40 Curator, Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya
41. Superintendent of Fisheries, Jafrabad.

42. Agronomist, Grass Land Improvement Scheme, Dhari.

43. Agronomist, Regional Sugarcane Research Station, Kodinar.

44. Port Supervisor, Jafrabad.

All these officers except four mentioned at serial numbers from 41 to 44 are located at Amreli.

OFFICERS UNDER DISTRICT PANCHAYAT

After the implementation of Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961 in the district and with the transfer of many departmental schemes, a number of district level functionaries have been transferred to the District Panchayat. These officers are under the administrative control of the District Development Officer, but for technical supervision they are under the control of their own heads of departments at the State level The following is the list of officers under the District Panchayat:—

1. District Development Officer.

2. District Agriculture Officer.

3. Deputy District Development Officer (Development and Panchayat).

4. Deputy District Development Officer (Revenue).

5. Executive Engineer, Panchayat Division.

6. Administrative Officer, Education Committee.

7. District Health Officer.

8. Chief Officer.

9. Chitnis.

10. District Animal Husbandry Officer.

11. Social Welfare Officer (Panchayat).

12. Assistant District Registrar.

13. District Statistical Officer.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OFFICES

In addition to State Offices, there are several offices of Central Government located at the district headquarters. These are listed below:

1. Head Post Office.
2. Telephone Exchange Office.
3. Central Excise Inspector.
4. Central Excise Flying Squad Office.
5. Income-Tax Office.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION DURING EARLY DAYS

Saurashtra Areas

The territories of the Amreli district prior to 1949 formed part of various States and Estates of Saurashtra. Before acquisition by Gaekwad, Amreli was under the occupation of Kathis and Saiyads. The history of Amreli will, therefore, have to be traced to the history of Saurashtra. Although Saurashtra peninsula was for many years under the Muslim rule, the rulers of the peninsula were practically independent kings of their territories and the agrarian system of the Muslim rulers did not make any significant impact on the land system. At the beginning of the 19th century, Col. Walker observed that all landed proprietors in Kathiawar from Chief to the Girasia were in possession and exercise of uncontrolled power over the people in their States and Estates. The cultivators were merely tenants-at-will and had hardly any rights against their landlords. The cultivators for all practical purposes were no better than serfs. Neither the Political Agency nor States interfered with evictions of tenants by landholders. However, at a later date some States like Bhavnagar used to intervene in cases of unconscionable evictions and the landholders in Agency administered areas were not allowed to evict their tenants without the previous permission of Agency. The cultivators of *khalsa* land of the States were also tenants-at-will till 1885 when certain States gave them some sort of occupancy rights known as *buta* or *chav haks*. There was, however, no change in the tenure of *khalsa* lands in these States.

The usual mode of realisation of land revenue was crop-share usually known as *bhagbatai* which varied according to the nature of crops and fertility of soil.

EARLY REVENUE HISTORY

For Baroda Areas

The early revenue history of the district under the Gaekwad regime, may be divided broadly into four periods, as follows :—

(1) The Bhagbatai period,
(2) Payment of land revenue in cash,
(3) The ijara system, and
(4) The reforms by Maharaja Khanderao and Malharrao.

(1) *The Bhagbatai System*

From time immemorial, the bhagbatai or crop-share system prevailed in Kathiawar. All the produce of the village was brought to the threshing floor and after deducting the royal share, the remainder was distributed among the primary producers and village servants. The Government share was called Vaje. The shares given to the village servants useful to community were called *mapas* Such shares were variously called Havaldari, Mandvi, Sukhadi, Kharajat, Jampo, Kunvar Sukhadi, etc.

(2) *Payment of Land Revenue in Cash*

It was found very difficult to collect Vaje under the Bhagbatai system. The Bhagbatai system was, therefore, replaced by the payment of land revenue in cash during the Muslim and Maratha periods. The Marathas exacted Peshkash from the villages in order to facilitate realisation of land revenue At one time, the land revenue was assessed on the basis of the number of ploughs used and area cultivated. The plough tax (*Santi Vero*) from Rs 5 to Rs 35 was charged on an area varying from 60 to 100 vighas according to the classification of soil. At some places, in place of the *Santi Vero*, hearth cess (*Chula Vero*) was recovered. Those who did not cultivate lands personally were liable to *Udhad Vero*, a tax levied generally from non-agriculturists From the Rabaris and Bharvads, annual cess was recovered After firm establishment of the Maratha period, the old bhagbatai system was revived During the regime of Babaji Apaji and Vithalrao Diwanji in the beginning only cesses were recovered on the *Ek-Ankadi* system In 1812, Vithalrao Diwanji introduced *Kaccha Vahivat*, under which Vaje was recovered by levying *Santi Vero* This system continued till 1830

(3) *The Ijara System*

In order to save trouble in collection of land revenue, after 1830, the Ijara system was introduced during the period from 1834 to 1839. Aminuddin Husenkhan was the first Ijardar followed by Gopalrao Mairal. This *Ijara* period continued upto 1848 Under this system, the amount of land revenue to be realised depended upon the sweet will of the *Ijardar* and not on the produce raised. The Gaekwad administration was interested in collecting as much revenue as possible and the *Ijardar* was interested in making profit by exacting as much as possible from the cultivators. As a result, the cultivators were always under suspense as to when the lands under their cultivation would be snatched away. In such exactions the village Patels assisted the *Ijardar*, who levied less land revenue on the lands held by the Patels Sometimes the sub-lease (*Peta Ijara*) was given to village Patels, who rack-rented cultivators. No documentary evidence is

available of the *Ijardars'* revenue management, as he maintained no revenue records. Sometimes, *Ijardar* himself did not take the *Ijara* or lease, but got it under the name of his relative by standing a surety. Sometimes, *Ijardars* created troubles in collection of the land cesses. Before the lease period was to expire, the Gaekwad administration gave the lease to another *Ijardar* for realising more revenue. The *Ijardar*, therefore, harassed cultivators and exacted as much as possible from them

(4) *Reforms by Khanderao and Malharrao*

As the farmers were harassed under *Ijara* system, in 1864 Maharaja Khanderao introduced the ryotwari system. He got the lands surveyed and classified and fixed land revenue for 10 years. However, in the Amreli district, the old Bhagbatai system was continued Maharaja Khanderao abolished the *Ijara* system but his successor Malharrao not only re-introduced the *Ijara* system but handed over the revenue administration to his own persons who worked as Kumavisdar. This resulted in greater exaction and harassment of the cultivators than it was under the *Ijara* system, because the Ijardars could be removed when found oppressive but the friends of the ruler could not. Apart from this land cess, there were other local cesses levied from the villages which were obnoxious in character.

Thus, in the early days when Marathas had not acquired Amreli prant, the pattern of land ownership in the areas comprising present territories was feudalistic and the revenue system was very oppressive in character Efforts were, however, made by Baroda, Bhavnagar and Junagadh State, whose areas form the major part of the territories of the present district, to bring out some kind of an order from the medley of land tenures.

PRE-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

Land Tenure System

Prior to Independence in the district, there were various land tenures. Although the main land system in the Amreli prant was ryotwari, there were many non-ryotwari tenures such as Mulgiras, Ankadia, Baroda Watans, Jagirs, etc. These tenures originated in the exigencies of administration and the overriding consideration of political expediency and were products of uncertain political conditions. As the village economy was primarily based upon the ownership of land, the existence of these special tenures affected the social and economic well-being of rural population who had to labour for the maintenance of their overlords. Thus arose a class of non-cultivating landlords which subsisted upon the revenues realised from their inams and watans.

Apart from the Amreli prant of the former Baroda State, the present district comprises areas which before reorganisation belonged to other princely States of Saurashtra. The land tenure system which was in existence in these areas may be broadly classified into *khalsa, Girasdari* and *Barkhali* tenures. Under the *khalsa* tenure, land was held by the cultivators directly from the State, while under the other two tenures, they were the tenants of the *Girasdars* and *Barkhalidars* and occupied the land under their pleasure. The class of *Girasdars* included Talukdars, *Mulgirasias* and *Bhayats*, who had proprietary interests in the lands and the villages which belonged to them. *Barkhalidars* included *Inamdars Jivaidars, Dharmada* or *Kherati* grantees and service tenures such as *Chakariats* and *Pasayatas* who were merely entitled to the use of land granted to them but did not have any proprietary rights. The term *Barkhalidar* literally means a landlord whose produce of the land remains outside the *khala* or the common threshing floor, because the *Barkhalidar* was not required to bring the produce to the *khala*, as he had nothing to pay to the State by way of revenue. Since payment in kind was the usual mode of recovery of land revenue, the produce was first brought to the *khala* where *rajbhag* or the ruler's share of land revenue was first determined.

The different categories of land tenures in existence at the time of integration were :—

(i) *Khalsa Lands*—The lands were held by the tenants directly from the State which recovered land revenue either in the form of crop-share or cash. The cultivators of *khalsa* lands in the smaller States were mere lessees whose tenure depended upon the will of the rulers.

(ii) *Talukdars*—The Talukdars were small chiefs also styled Bhoomias. Under Walker's Settlement they were recognised as independent States with jurisdictional rights. Some of them, however, were non-jurisdictional. Their proprietory rights were recognised and protected against usurption by stronger chiefs. Talukdars were deemed to have life interest in their States, which they could neither sell nor mortgage.

(iii) *Mulgirasias*—The Mulgirasias were the descendants of the original proprietors of villages whose possession and ownership of land dated prior to the establishment of the various States or Estates under whom they were found. "In course of time a fiction grew up that there was a commendation of the holdings of the Mulgirasias as to the chiefs who rebestowed them to the former." This theory of commendation was used to support the escheat of the Mulgirasia's land to the Darbar on the failure of his heir and collaterals as also in the event of permanent transfer by sale,

gift or otherwise, as a Mulgirasia could not make any permanent alienation of his land. His rights of alienation by mortgage and sale were in course of time regulated by the Kathiawar Political Agency Notification No. 49 of 1891 under which he could mortgage his holding to any party but could sell only to the Darbar or to his collaterals with the prior sanction of the Darbar. For the right of pre-emption always rested with the collaterals The Mulgirasias had to pay to the Darbar a contribution known as 'Sudhara Varad' for carrying on works of general improvement in the village, usually fixed at the rate of 2 annas per acre of cultivable land.

(iv) *Bhayats*—The word literally means and includes members of the younger branch of a Chief's or Talukadar's family, where the State followed the rule of primogeniture. They received grants-in-appanage as their birth right to a share in the patrimony States like Gondal and Jasdan and later Bhavnagar followed the practice of giving the *giras* in cash to their immediate relatives. Bhayati *giras* ordinarily reverted to the grantor in the absence of a lineal male descendant, and its alienation by mortgage or sale was generally prohibited The Bhayats also paid 'Sudhara Varad' to the State besides discharging various political and other obligations to their chief in the form of military and social services.

(v) *Inamdars*—They were holders of inam land granted by the State or the Darbar in appreciation of services rendered or for pleasure.

(vi) *Jivaidars*—Grants in jivai were given for maintenance without any proprietary interest in the land, which lapsed to the State on the death of the grantee

(vii) *Dharmada or Kherati Holders*—Grants of lands were made in favour of religious institutions, temples, etc, for their upkeep, performance of worship, etc These grants were not liable to resumption except in case of maladministration or mismanagement

(viii) *Chakariyats and Pasayatas*—These were lands granted to village servants in lieu of performance of service to the State and the village community The grantee continued in possession of the lands so long as he rendered the village service for which it was given.

LAND POLICY OF SAURASHTRA GOVERNMENT

Immediately after integration, various steps were taken by the Government of Saurashtra to rationalise the land revenue system and bring

it on par with the Bombay system by adopting the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879 with certain modifications In its land policy declaration of 15th April, 1948, it announced that,

(1) all forced labour (*veth*), *lagas* and *letries* wherever levied in addition to the crop-share or cash assessment were abolished forthwith. This declaration was followed by a Proclamation on 15th April, 1948 conferring heritable and transferable rights on all the cultivators of *khalsa* villages without charging occupancy price This made overnight all the cultivators of such areas occupants within the meaning of the Land Revenue Code.

(2) Crop-share (*bhagbatai*) system in all *khalsa* areas was ordered to be substituted by cash assessment (*vighoti*) as the existence of crop-share at one place and of cash assessment at the other in respect of lands enjoying similar rights was somewhat perplexing In the circumstances then prevailing, it was not feasible to introduce scientific survey and settlement operations immediately An *ad hoc* lump sum assessment was, therefore fixed on the average of recoveries of the last fifteen years from 1933 to 1947

(3) Arbitrary and obnoxious cesses recovered in addition to the normal land revenue from cultivators were abolished from *khalsa* as well as non-*khalsa* areas of the State

(4) Diversity of revenue laws and orders was done away with by the adoption of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879 which was made applicable to the State by an Ordinance passed in 1949

(5) A separate department was created for the unification of the survey and settlement operations

Introduction of Cash Assessment— After the integration of States, the Saurashtra Government attempted to reduce the diversities and inequalities in the basis of assessment by adopting the following three methods in different categories of villages (1) cash assessment by regular scientific survey, (2) lump sum assessment worked out on the average of the crop-share for the period from 1933 to 1947 in the *khalsa* villages where *bhagbatai* prevailed before integration, and (3) assessment calculated on the arithmetical averages of assessments leviable in the surrounding *khalsa* villages for the purpose of the Land Reforms Act and the Barkhali Abolition Act

As a result of these measures land assessment was rationalised, all intermediaries on land were removed, and the ryotwari system of land tenure introduced in the whole of Saurashtra

Interim Measures for Protection of Tenants—The Government of Saurashtra also initiated far reaching measures in non-*khalsa* lands by tackling the problem of tenancy and affording the tenants all protection against eviction.

The Saurashtra Tenants Protection Ordinance No XXII of 1948 was promulgated to protect tenants from arbitrary eviction It provided that in case a landlord required land for personal cultivation the tenant who was the holder of that land should be served with a notice of six months in advance. This Ordinance safeguarded tenants against arbitrary eviction but disputes regarding rent still continued as there was no provision for the regulation of rent. Government, therefore, promulgated another Ordinance, *viz.*, the Saurashtra Zamindars' and Tenants' Settlement of Rent Disputes Ordinance No XXVI of 1948 which empowered Mamlatdars to take charge of the crops in disputes and Deputy Collectors to terminate rent on the basis of the Anda Settlement under which landholders were enjoined not to evict tenants and to recover rent not exceeding $\frac{1}{4}$th and $\frac{1}{3}$th share in unirrigated and irrigated crops respectively The Saurashtra Protection of Tenants (Amendment) Ordinance No XXXI of 1948, passed thereafter, provided *inter alia* for the appointment of joint committees of landholders and tenants for settlement of disputes relating to ejectment of tenants and recovery of rent It also provided that instead of ¼th and $\frac{1}{3}$th share, the formula of rent agreed to by the representatives of both the parties should be taken as a basis for fixing rent This Ordinance also did not help in lessening the tension that already existed in the relations between the tenants and the landholders and it was feared that there would be large scale evictions of tenants To avoid such a situation, the Saurashtra Temporary Protection of Eviction Ordinance No XXVIII of 1949 was issued This Ordinance provided that notice given by landholders under the Saurashtra Zamindars' and Tenants' Settlement of Rent Disputes Ordinance of 1948 shall not be deemed to terminate tenancy. Even this Ordinance failed to solve the problem of eviction Ultimately, Government promulgated the Saurashtra Gharkhed Tenancy Settlement and Agricultural Lands Ordinance No XLI of 1949 repealing all the previous Ordinances It made provision for the grant of certain quantity of land for personal cultivation to the landholders declaring the tenants on the remaining land as protected tenants The Ordinance empowered Government to assume management of estates in case of disputes between landlord and tenants. It also provided that Government should fix (1) the assessment for Gharkhed and non-Gharkhed land and (2) the basis of rent payable by tenants to landholders The Ordinance provided for a levy of four annas per acre from landholders in respect of their Gharkhed lands and of 12½ per cent of the revenue on non-Gharkhed lands Assessment was determined on the basis of principles laid down by Government which provided that (1) cash rent would be levied where cash rent existed at any

time in the past, (2) if there was no cash rent but if *udhad* or lump sum was fixed at any time, rent would be levied according to such *udhad*, (lump), (3) if there was neither cash assessment nor *udhad* in such villages and only crop-share prevailed, cash rent would be determined on the basis of the average of the cash assessment leviable in surrounding *khalsa* villages. The rate, however, was subject to a maximum limit of Rs. 3 per *bigha* or *jirayat* land and Rs. 6 per *bigha* of *bagayat* land. This Ordinance was liked neither by the landlord nor by the tenant who had still to face eviction notices in case the landholder chose to have that particular land for Gharkhed as he was at liberty to choose any tenant for eviction. Landholders also disliked this Ordinance because it failed to permit Gharkhed land for all of them and those who were entitled to get it thought that the area allotted was too small.

All these were temporary measures, more or less in the nature of palliatives, which emphasised the urgency of introducing agrarian reforms of a far reaching character reviewed in the section that follows.

LAND REFORMS

Amreli district as it exists today is the product of two reorganisations. In 1949 the district consisted of Amreli and Okhamandal districts of the former Baroda State to which Ghogha mahal from Ahmedabad was added. In 1959 it was further reorganised with the result that large areas from Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh districts were added to it and Okhamandal taluka and Ghogho mahal were detached from it. The major portion of the areas of the district were thus constituents of the former State of Baroda and princely States of Western India States Agency.

In these areas before Independence, there were various land tenures upon which the land was held by farmers and others. These tenures were a product of long evolution determined by the geographical, political, social and economic conditions. With the advent of Independence these tenures were considered out moded and antediluvian. After the integration of princely States into Indian Union, the holders of *khalsa* lands (*i. e.*, tenants) became the tenants of the State but holders of non-*khalsa* lands (i. e., intermediaries) did not enjoy similar rights. The land reforms, therefore, sought to tackle these problems in two ways, *viz.*, (1) the abolition of intermediaries and (2) the tenancy reforms for protecting tenants from malpractices and conferring upon them occupancy rights and making them the owners of the land they tilled. For this purpose various land reforms were undertaken by Government immediately after Independence. A resume of land reform measures for the district which comprises area which formed part of the former Bombay State and the former Saurashtra State is given below separately.

THE FORMER BOMBAY STATE AREA

After Independence, with the merger of Baroda State in the Bombay State the Amreli district became a part of it. The following non-ryotwari land tenures existed in the former Amreli district and were abolished by special legislation —

(1) the Ankadia Tenure,
(2) the Baroda Watans,
(3) the Baroda Mulgiras Tenure,
(4) the Jagirs,
(5) the Miscellaneous Alienations

Legislative attempts made for abolition of these tenures are set out below :—

(1) The Ankadia Tenure—The Ankadia tenure originated in the difficulties inherent in administering the far flung and hilly regions of the borderland owing to uncertain political conditions of the 18th century in Gujarat. Then, Government of the day badly needed a person, who could control the village, collect revenues, and pay a fixed sum called 'Ankda' to Government The main purpose was the revenue management of such villages As a result, the villages held on payment of 'Ankda' to Government came to be called Ankadia and their holders Ankadedars. Such villages were classified into *Ek Ankadia* or *Farta Ankadia* according as the amount of the Ankda was either fixed for 30 years or 10 years respectively These villages were further sub-divided into Thakrati and Matadari; but the status accorded to the Ankadedars of all these villages under the Baroda Ankadia Villages Rules, 1932, was that of revenue-farmers without any proprietory interest[1] The Baroda Rules of 1932 imposed certain restrictions on the revenue management of the villages. Firstly, the Ankadedar could not sell, mortgage or otherwise alienate the village lands without the permission of the State Secondly, all alienations made during the continuance of the Ankadia system were to be treated as jadid. Lastly, when the village was resumed by Government, it reverted to Government free from all charges or encumbrances made by the holder with or without sanction of Government.

In Amreli district Ankadia tenure existed in two villages, *viz.*, Rampur (Dhari) and Khad Khambhalia with 43 tenure holders. The Ankadia tenure was abolished with all its incidents with effect from 15th August,

1. PATEL G. D. (DR.), *The Land Problem of Re-organized Bombay State*, Bombay, (1957), p. 190.

1953 by the Bombay Merged Territories (Ankadia Tenure Abolition) Act, 1953. The Baroda Rules of 1932 were repealed. The villages were resumed and all lands in such villages were made liable to payment of land revenue in accordance with the provisions of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879. The Ankadedars and Jiwaidars of these villages were not dispossessed of the lands in their possession (Gharkhed) but were recognised as occupants thereof. The law did not affect the Devasthan and Dharmada lands and lands held for service useful to Government.

The Ankadedars in respect of the Gharkhed lands, and cultivators paying land revenue have been recognised as occupants. In the ex-Baroda villages, tenants cultivating *puran* lands of Ankadedars are given rights of occupancy on payment of six times the assessment as occupancy price to the Jagirdar. Except these persons, other cultivators continue as tenants under the provisions of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948. Thus, the Act has made the Gharkhed and *Jiwai* lands which were wholly exempt from payment of land revenue liable to full assessment under the Code.

Occupancy rights have been conferred upon 4 Ankadedars and 74 tenants without payment of occupancy price in the district. Uncultivated and waste lands and all property of the nature specified in section 37 of the Code covering acres 756-10 gunthas vested in Government under the Act. Compensation to the extent of Rs 37,272.94 was awarded in respect of one claim.

(2) *The Baroda Watans*—In the former Baroda State, watans were granted to leading men of the villages who were responsible for the collection of the village revenues. In the early days of the Gaekwar's regime, the Watandars, Desais, Amins and Majmundars were the pivots of the village administration and were considered indispensable in the sphere of revenue management. "The essence of the watan was service for the remuneration of which land or cash was assigned. Thus, the origin of the watans was in the revenue management of the villages or group of villages."[1] These watans were regulated by the Baroda Watan Rules, 1932. These rules never recognised any proprietary interest of the watandars in the watan villages and lands. Further the watans were inalienable. In the case of unauthorised alienations, the watan lands were made *khalsa*, entered as waste and put to auction. The Baroda State treated the watans purely as service watan subject to service Kapat (cut) on failure to perform service. The rules relating to succession were very strict in that even a sharer in the watan was not allowed to inherit another watan or any share in another watan without Government permission. Further, females

1. PATEL G. D. (DR.), *The Land Problem of Re-organized Bombay State*, Bombay, (1957), p. 186.

were not permitted to inherit watans but were entitled to maintenance allowance only. At every succession, the watans were subject to *pedhi* (succession) Kapat. The service and succession Kapats, made the watans a gradually vanishing quantity in the course of a few generations

There was no commutation of watan service before 1949, when the Jivraj Ministry made watans non-service by absolving the watandars from the obligation of service on payment of service out of 8 or 12 annas in a rupee of assessment of the watan lands.

These watans consisted of entire villages, scattered lands and cash allowances. The watans in the district consisted of one village (*i. e.*, Dahida village) and 9 scattered parcels of land aggregating to 1828 A 21 G. and cash allowances as under .

Category	No of persons	Amount per year Rs p	Amount of compensation Rs p.
(i) Hereditary	19	2,785 26	13,926.30
(ii) Life-time . .	.		.
	19	*2,785 26*	*13,926.30*
(iii) Continuation of watans consisting of whole or part payment of land revenue Watans resumed by levy of full assessment	No	Amount in Rs.	
	8	8,822 21	

These watans were abolished with effect from 15th August, 1953 by the Bombay Merged Territories (Baroda Watans Abolition) Act, 1953. Under the Act all watans were abolished with their incidents The watandars were not dispossessed of the lands, but were made eligible to the regrant of the resumed lands on payment of occupancy price equal to six multiples of assessment fixed on the land. The regrant was on the new tenure only and for making the occupancy transferable or partible, nazarana equal to 20 times the assessment of the land was payable to Government. Occupancy rights were conferred upon 23 individuals for 1,769 A 05 G. on payment of occupancy price

(3) *The Baroda Mulgiras*—Uncertain political conditions in the 18th century in Gujarat were also responsible for the creation of the Baroda Mulgiras tenure, which was found only in the Amreli district.

At the commencement of Mulkgiri period, Amreli was acquired by the Marathas partly from Kathis and partly from the Saiyads, who surrendered their possession retaining only a part for themselves Thus, they came to be known as Mulgirasias in respect of the lands left in their possessions. Those villages and lands were held by the Kathis and Rajputs who loved

plunder and cattle lifting. They were engaged in depredations in the adjacent Saurashtra territory. They themselves, however, were subject to depredations from stronger neighbouring chiefs like Bhavnagar. Owing to constant harassment, they were driven to seek protection of the Gaekwar, who agreed to do so on condition that the Girasias should give a portion of their estates and retain the remainder for their maintenance. The portion of the estate so retained came to be called 'Giras'. Thus the protection was purchased by the Girasias by surrendering portion of their estates. In return, the Gaekwar granted 'parwanas' to the Mulgirasias between 1811 to 1816. The parwanas stipulated that the Girasias should act as police, keep peace and furnish security for the proper behaviour of other people as well as themselves In this manner, the erstwhile independent estates became part of the Baroda State and the Mulgirasias became the subjects of that State The history of the evolution of the estates clearly shows that the Mulgirasias were not the grantees of the Gaekwar, but were the proprietors of their villages and held lands wholly exempt from payment of assessment except in the case of the Piplag village whose Girasia paid Ankada and Dastur amounting to Rs. 753 The only amount payable to Government was the local cess of one anna in a rupee of assessment This was the main incident of the tenure The Mulgirasias were confirmed in the possession of their lands at the time of Maji Jarif (old survey) of 1863 but were subjected to full assessment for the encroached lands only [1]

The tenure consisted of 9 entire villages, 85 scattered parcels of lands 65,694 A and 39 G in 98 *khalsa* villages in the district and cash allowances Rs 4,910.50 The villages, lands and cash allowances were held by 545 Mulgirasias They were abolished with all its incidents with effect from 15th August, 1953 by the Bombay Merged Territories (Baroda Mulgiras Tenure Abolition) Act, 1953 The Act abolished the Mulgirasias' right to receive cash allowances[2] and subjected the Mulgiras lands to payment of full assessment Moreover, the Act conferred occupancy rights on the Mulgirasias in respect of their Mulgiras lands and co-sharers in respect of such lands held by them in villages Occupancy rights for lands aggregating to 65,594 A 39 G. were conferred upon 476 Mulgirasias, 660 co-sharers and 51 tenants The other cultivators continued as tenants under the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948. The property and lands such as unbuilt village-site lands, waste and uncultivated lands and other properties totalling 15,357 acres vested in Government

(4) *The Jagirs*—The Jagirs can broadly be divided into two categories, *viz.*, (1) those granted for maintenance to the members of royal family and

1. PATEL G. D. (DR.), *The Land Problem of Re-organized Bombay State*, Bombay, (1957), pp. 194-95
2. There were 41 cash allowances aggregating to Rs. 12,142 annually. They were abolished on payment of compensation amounting to Rs. 37,564.

(2) to those granted in appreciation of services to the State or valour in war. They consisted of entire villages and cash allowances. In the district, there were 9 Jagiri villages in the Kodinar taluka only. The Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagirs Abolition) Act, 1953 abolished all the Jagirs with effect from 1st August, 1954. The Act conferred occupancy rights on Jagirdars or cadets and the lands held by permanent holders. In the district, 2 Jagirdars and 838 permanent holders have been conferred occupancy rights without payment of occupancy price for Gharkhed lands totalling to 8,903 A. and 34 G In respect of the properties vested in Governmet, compensation amounting to Rs 3,930 has been awarded. Compensation to the tune of Rs. 47,638.47 has also been paid to 47 claimants.

(5) THE MISCELLANEOUS ALIENATIONS

After the abolition of medley of non-ryotwari tenures such as the Ankadia, the Baroda Watan, the Jagirs, etc., several miscellaneous alienations consisting of scattered lands and cash allowances survived. In the district scattered lands in villages measuring 4,251 A. and 34 G. and cash allowances were covered by miscellaneous alienations. With effect from 1st August, 1955, these alienations were abolished by the Bombay Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act, 1955 The Act conferred occupancy rights upon 172 persons without payment of occupancy price for land admeasuring 4,251 A and 34 G One cash allowance was abolished by paying compensation of Rs. 234.34. Two allowances of widows totalling Rs. 125.19 have been continued for their life-time. Other five cash allowances (Rs. 4 686.15) have also been continued.

Tenancy Legislation—The tenancy rights in the district are regulated at present under the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948. This Act was made applicable to those areas of present Amreli district which previously belonged to former Baroda State. It may be noted that in the former Saurashtra areas there is no tenancy legislation. The Act is not applicable to the areas which formed part of State of Saurashtra, and which have been transferred to this district in 1959 In the former Bombay State there was no special law regulating the relations between landlords and tenants. The relations between the two were mostly governed by mutual contracts or local usage and customs The provisions of section 83 of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879 constituted the tenancy law of the State. With a view to safeguarding the rights of tenants, the first tenancy legislation called the Bombay Tenancy Act, 1939 was enacted. This Act introduced a new concept of protected tenant covering those tenants who held land continuously for a period of not less than six years. It gave to the tenants for the first time, fixity of tenure, a ceiling on rentals, rights in house-sites and trees, and protection from eviction under certain circumstances This Act of 1939 was replaced by a comprehensive legislation in 1948. This Act was amended extensively in 1956. It

provided that on the 1st April, 1957 described as the 'Tillers' Day', every tenant whether permanent, protected or ordinary, was deemed to have purchased from the landlord the land leased to him subject to the condition that the tenant cultivated the land personally and his total holding did not exceed the ceiling areas and the purchase price did not exceed 200 times the assessment. This Act was also amended from time to time by the Bombay Acts XV and XXXVIII of 1957, LXIII of 1958, Gujarat Act XVI and XXVII of 1961.

The original Tenancy Act of 1948 as amended in 1956 made comprehensive provisions for regulation of rent, security of tenure, transfer of ownership to tenants, imposition of ceilings on existing holdings as well as future acquisition, restrictions on transfer of agricultural land, management of uncultivated lands, etc. Under the law, all rents are payable only in cash by the tenants. The maximum and minimum rents are fixed in multiples of assessment and not crop-share. The maximum rent is not to exceed five times the assessment or Rs. 20 per acre and shall not be less than twice such assessment. In case a landlord recovers rent in excess, he is liable to penalty.

As regards security of tenure, permanent tenants have been given complete security of tenure. Other tenants are given security subject to the landlord's rights to resume lands not exceeding 3 economic holdings (12 to 48 acres) on condition that every tenant retains half the area leased. A small holder is defined as a person who has leased land not exceeding one economic holding and whose total annual income does not exceed Rs. 1,500. He can resume half the area leased from a tenant in all cases. These were constraints on resumption. The main constraints are that the income by the cultivation of land of which a person is entitled to take possession is the principal source of income for his maintenance and that the land leased stood in his name or any of his ancestors on January 1, 1952. If a landlord after terminating the tenancy does not cultivate the land personally within one year of resumption or after having commenced such cultivation discontinues the same within 10 years, the tenant will be entitled to restoration.

Transfer of ownership was provided to permanent tenants with effect from Tiller's Day, *i. e.*, 1st April, 1957. Other tenants except those of small holders were also deemed to have acquired ownership from that day. As regards tenants of small holders, the law was subsequently amended to provide transfer of ownership to tenants in respect of non-resumable lands with effect from 1st April, 1962. During the course of implementation it came to the notice of Government that in many cases there were possibilities of the purchases by the tenants becoming ineffective due to the tenants' absence before the tenancy courts

and due to their inability to purchase these lands. In many cases their purchases were likely to become ineffective due to non-payment of due instalments of purchase price to the landlord. The State Government has, by two important amendments, tried to prevent these large scale ineffective purchases. Under one amendment, the tenants who remained absent before the tenancy courts and who expressed inability to purchase the lands were given an opportunity to apply for purchase of the lands if they had done it before making an application within one year from 29th December, 1965. By another amendment, the State Government had extended the period of paying arrears of instalments by three years more. The Government has, at the same time framed Rules under the Agriculturist's Loans Act for advancing *tagavi* to assist them in paying the due amount of arrears of instalments within the extended period of three years.

The following statement reviews the progress of implementation of the Act covering 7,162 cases and involving 7,632 tenants for the period ending March 1967.

Statement showing transfer of ownership of land to tenants under section 32-G of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948.

Sl No	Item	No. of tenants	Areas in acres A. G.
1	No. of tenants on 1st April, 1957 with the area of land under their cultivation	7,544	77,911-33
2.	No of tenants who acquired ownership rights under section 32-G together with the area held	5 109	58,322-27
3	No of tenants who have paid the purchase price fully and become full-fledged occupants	2,853	
4	No of tenants who still continue as tenants with the area held by them	2,435	19,589-06

Effects of the Land Reforms in Bombay State Areas

To sum up, in the land reforms programmes the intermediary interests under inam and non-ryotwari tenures were abolished by enacting separate legislation for each inam or non-ryotwari land tenure. Under the impact of the Abolition Acts, all lands under them were made ryotwari liable to payment of land revenue under the Land Revenue Code; the intermediaries were recognised as occupants in respect of lands held or cultivated by them with or without payment of occupancy price, their tenants were conferred ownership rights generally on payment of compensation to the tenure-holder or Government and thus the entire village administration came under the perview of Government.

Under the tenancy reforms, the tenants are given security of tenure; the rents are regulated, transfer of ownership is provided on payment of compensation and the transfer of agricultural lands is restricted.

SAURASHTRA AREA

The former State of Saurashtra was the result of integration of 222 States and Estates, some of which were first class States with progressive administration, whereas the majority of them were small principalities. After the merger of States and Estates, into the United State of Saurashtra, the State came to be called Part B State. The new Government had to face the problem of bringing uniformity in the medley of the land tenure systems. As seen in the preceeding paragraphs, the problem was tackled by the Saurashtra Government by conferment of full occupancy rights on all the cultivators of the *khalsa* villages without charging any occupancy price. This step made overnight all the cultivators of such areas occupants within the meaning of the Land Revenue Code. Their existence created an anomolous situation inasmuch as their tenants did not acquire the occupancy rights conferred on their counterparts in the *khalsa* villages who were brought in direct relation with Government. Thus out of the 4,400 odd villages of the former Saurashtra State, the cultivators of nearly 2,700 villages obtained full occupancy rights immediately on the formation of the new State, while in the rest of the 1,700 villages covering nearly 1/3rd of the area the intermediary tenure of Girasdari and Barkhali-dars holders survived. The cultivators under the Girasdari and Barkhali tenures were tenants-at-will except in such cases known as *chav* or *buta hak* which gave them some security of tenure. In order to remove these intermediaries from the agrarian structure abolition of the Girasdari and the Barkhali system was considered very urgent. The Government of India in consultation with the former Government of Saurashtra appointed the Agrarian Reforms Commission. The Commission recommended that the Girasdari and Barkhali systems should be abolished on payment of compensation to the Girasdars and that they should be alloted lands for personal cultivation. For Barkhalidars the Commission recommended that their lands should revert to the State without compensation. However, to enable them to adjust themselves to the changed circumstances, they should be paid a rehabilitation grant. On the basis of these recommendations, the following enactments were passed :—

(1) The Saurashtra Land Reforms Act 1951, (2) The Saurashtra Barkhali Abolition Act, 1951, and (3) The Saurashtra Estates Acquisition Act, 1952.

The Saurashtra Land Reforms Act, 1951—With effect from September 1, 1951 this Act abolished the Girasdari system and enabled the tenants to become the occupants of the land held by them on the payment of compensation to the Girasdars for extinguishment of their rights. The Girasdars were allotted land for personal cultivation (*Gharkhed*). All obnoxious cesses, *haks*, taxes, services imposed by Girasdars were also

abolished. Although all the Girasdari lands are made liable to payment of land revenue to the State, the lands are not subjected to payment of full assessment immediately. For the purpose of levy of land revenue, the Girasdars are classed into A, B and C categories according to the area of the estate held by them. The A class Girasdars have to pay full assessment The B class Girasdars have to pay :—

(a) 4 annas per acre for the first 3 years,
(b) 8 annas per acre for the next 3 years,
(c) half the assessment for the next 5 years, and
(d) full assessment thereafter.

The C class Girasdars have to pay 4 annas per acre for 21 years and full assessment thereafter. But the tenants of the Girasdars who have acquired occupancy rights on payment of occupancy price equal to six times the assessment to the Girasdars are immediately liable to payment of full assessment

In this district, the Act is applicable to 250 villages and 78 scattered lands. Prior to the implementation of the Act, there were 2,305 Girasdars in the district. These Girasdars were to be allotted lands admeasuring 79,899 acres for personal cultivation, after classifying them in to categories A, B and C Occupancy rights for lands admeasuring 2,76,271 A. and 15 G. on payment of occupancy price were to be conferred (subsequently termed and paid as compensation to Girasdars) Under the Act Girasdars are divided into three classes *viz.*, A, B and C The Girasdar was called A class Girasdar if the total area of his estate exceeded 800 acres, B class Girasdar if it exceeded 120 acres but did not exceed 800 acres and C class Girasdar if it did not exceed 120 acres

In the Saurashtra land reforms laws, the pattern of compensation is very peculiar It is related to the graduated land revenue liability of the landholders and their tenant-occupants All the Girasdars are entitled to receive occupancy price equal to six multiples of assessment from their tenants for the lands in respect of which they are made occupants. Besides, all the A Girasdars are to get from such tenants an amount equal to the assessment of the lands held by them for 15 years But in the case of the B and C Girasdars, the Act provides for rehabilitation grants payable in the shape of assessment respectively for 3 and 6 years more Thus, the A class Girasdars are to get compensation in the shape of assessment for 15 years, the B class Girasdars for 18 years and the C class Girasdars for 21 years. Thus, the compensation payable to the Girasdars for abolition of the Girasdari right is met from the land revenue received from the tenant-occupants The compensation is paid to the tenure-holders by Government in the first instance and then recovered from tenants

The Saurashtra Barkhali Abolition Act, 1951—In the district, the Act applies to 13 villages and 210 scattered lands. Under this Act, all rights, titles, and interests of the Barkhalidars in agricultural lands were abolished from September 1, 1951 and occupancy rights were conferred on all the tenants without payment of any compensation to the Barkhalidars. Land was allotted to the Barkhalidars also for personal cultivation.

All lands, which were Barkhali and which are allowed or allotted as Gharkhed are made liable to payment of land revenue according to the different rates of assessment. The Barkhalidars agitated for a graduated levy of assessment, a concession given to the Girasdars under the Land Reforms Act, 1951 As a result of this agitation section 17 of the Barkhali Abolition Act was amended in 1954 in order to provide for graduated payment of land revenue by the Barkhalidars in respect of the Gharkhed lands and lands allotted for personal cultivation Like the Girasdars, the land revenue liability is fixed on the Barkhalidars according to the three classes as under .

Category of Barkhalidar	Land revenue payable by him for his Gharkhed and land allotted to him
1. Barkhalidar whose estate had more than 800 acres or who owned one or more villages	Full assessment
2 Barkhalidar whose estate had more than 120 acres but less than 800 acres	(a) 4 annas per acre for the first three years
	(b) 8 annas per acre for the next three years
	(c) half assessment for the next six years , and
	(d) full assessment thereafter
3 Barkhalidar whose estate was less than 120 acres	4 annas per acre for eighteen years and full assessment thereafter

On the analogy of the amendment to the Land Reforms Act, the Saurashtra Barkhali Abolition (Amendment) Act, 1954, was enacted to provide for the maintenance of a widow-*jivaidar* of a Barkhalidar. The occupancy rights were conferred upon 1,546 tenants without payment of occupancy price, while 1,058 Barkhalidars were allotted land admeasuring 21,636 A. and 35 G for their personal cultivation

The Barkhalidars are to be paid cash annuity by the State for a period of respectively 15 and 18 years, if they held one or more villages or less than one village. Government has to pay this amount of compensation every year from the amount of assessment received by the State from the lands in possession of their tenants who have become occupants now. There are, however, three exceptions to this general pattern. In the case of a widow or a *Hathgarana* grantee, the compensation is payable for the life-time of the holder In the case of a minor, the stipulated period may

be 15 or 18 years or 21 years whichever may be later. Lastly, if the existing holder is a religious or charitable institution, the payment of compensation is to be continued in perpetuity.

The Saurashtra Estates Acquisition Act, 1952—This Act was the third and the last in the series of land reforms undertaken by the Government of Saurashtra for the extinguishment of all rights, titles and interests of the Girasdars and Barkhalidars (all other assets except the lands under cultivation) which vested in the State from a specified date. It also provided for the payment of compensation for the abolition of those rights.

For acquisition of cultivable waste, compensation payable is equal to the income which the State will derive in the next 15 years from such lands by way of occupancy price and assessment. As a result, all the income derived from such lands for 15 years to come will go to the Girasdars and Barkhalidars and the State will not derive any income even by way of land revenue for 15 years. In the remaining cases, however, small amounts of compensation are payable outright.

OTHER MEASURES

These principal measures of land reforms were accompanied by a number of ancillary measures which were no less important to stabilise the peasantry on land. These were .

(i) *The Saurashtra Prohibition of Leases of Agricultural Lands Act*, 1953. This Act puts an end to absentee landlordism in any form by prohibiting leases of agricultural land, except in case of military personnel, widows, minors, the infirm and the disabled. Thus, sub-leasing is prohibited but the tenants are not given rights

(ii) *Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings*—In 1954 the Government of Saurashtra enacted a law called the Saurashtra Preventation of Fragmentation and Regulation of Holdings Act, with a view to starting the process of consolidation of holdings and stopping their further fragmentation The Act, fixed one acre of *bagayat* and two acres of *Jirayat* land as the minimum area necessary for profitable cultivation as a separate plot. Any piece of land less then this standard area was to be treated as a fragment. The Act also provided that the maximum size of holding held by any occupant should not be more than three economic holdings The ceiling did not apply to land acquired for co-operative societies, for plantations and for charitable, educational or other public institutions The area of an economic holding was fixed under the Saurashtra Land Reforms Act, 1951 The Act further provided that if a holder intended to sell or lease a fragment, it must be sold or leased to the holders of the contiguous survey number If the adjacent holder was

unwilling to take it, the Government would step in and purchase it at the market value to be fixed under the Land Acquisition Act, 1894. As for future fragments, the Act, prohibited their creation by transfer or partition. Transactions relating to transfer or partition of land which resulted in fragments were declared void.

The Act was subsequently amended in 1956 in order to remove certain difficulties experienced by the co-operative societies and the land mortgage banks in its implementation For example as transfer of fragments was prohibited under section 6 of the Act, agriculturists holding such fragments could not get loans on the security of their lands. The Act, was, therefore, amended to remove this and other difficulties. The Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, was applied to the former Saurashtra State with necessary changes on 1st April, 1959.

Consolidation of small and scattered holdings is accepted as a preliminary step to the formation of co-operative farming The consolidation programme should, therefore, not be thought of in isolation but in the context of the entire land policy of the State In Gujarat, comprehensive legislation has been enacted to prevent fragmentation and consolidation of holdings The Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act was enacted in 1947 and was made applicable to this district in 1954. It was first applied to the Ghogho mahal which formed part of the district till July 1959 Then the scheme was extended to the Amreli and Kodinar talukas But it has been kept in abeyance from the year 1963-64 onwards It provides for prevention of fragmentation in agricultural holdings and also provides for consolidation of the scattered parcels of land into compact holdings. For the purpose of the implementation of the Act, standard areas have been fixed for all talukas and mahals in this district and any area below the standard area is deemed a fragment

The following statement shows the progress made under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947 .—

Sl No. 1	Item 2	Name of taluka 3	No of villages 4	Total area (In acres) 5	No of cultivators benefitted 6
1	No of schemes completed under Section 19 (1) ..	Amreli	47	117,474	6,524
		Ghogho	38	69,730	1,832
2	No of schemes confirmed	Amreli	29	59,152	3,207
		Ghogho	37	66,032	1,720
3	No of schemes executed ..	Amreli	8	12,260	681
		Ghogo	36	63,411	1,633
4.	No of schemes in progress ..	Amreli	9	21,730	1,398
		Ghogho	1	4,533	196
		Kodinar	4	4,479	384

This will show that the Act has been enforced and consolidation work taken up only in some villages of Amreli and Kodinar talukas.

EFFECT OF LAND REFORMS IN SAURASHTRA AREAS

The Saurashtra Land Reforms Act, 1951 and the Saurashtra Barkhali Abolition Act, 1951 helped in solving the problems of (i) removal of disparity of status among cultivators tilling the land, (ii) bringing about fixity and uniformity of land tenure and land revenue administration, (iii) establishing direct relationship between Government and agriculturists and (iv) providing opportunities to Girasdars and Barkhalidars to rehabilitate their economy by personal cultivation of the land remaining with or allotted to them from their tenants. The former State of Saurashtra thus took a forward stride towards promoting the welfare of the people in general by replacing the old feudal order by a new social order in which land as belonging to the State of Saurashtra was to be held by those who were or would be agriculturists doing personal cultivation.

CEILING ON LAND HOLDINGS

In Gujarat, there was no ceiling legislation There was no separate law on ceiling legislation before bifurcation Whatever restrictions were in the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, related to the area for resumption for personal cultivation In Saurashtra and Kutch regions, the laws did not provide for imposition of ceilings on land holdings. After formation of Gujarat, the Gujarat Agricultural Lands Ceiling Act, 1960 was enacted and enforced with effect from 1st September, 1961. It provides ceilings on existing holdings as well as on future acquisition. The ceiling is on a person which includes a joint family No allowance is made for the size of a family. The ceiling area varies according to the class of land. In the case of dry crop land, ceiling varies from 56 acres to 132 acres, in the case of rice land from 38 acres to 88 acres, in the case of seasonally irrigated land from 38 acres to 88 acres, and in the case of perennialy irrigated land from 19 acres to 44 acres. Thus, the ceiling varies from 19 acres to 132 acres according to local areas and classes of land. So far as it relates to future acquisition, the level of ceiling is the same as that on existing holdings.

The ceiling areas prescribed for different classes of land are as under :—

Class of local area	Ceiling area in acres			
	Dry crop land	Rice land	Seasonally irrigated land	Perennially irrigated land
1	2	3	4	5
Class A	56	38	38	19
,, B	60	40	40	10
,, C .	72	48	48	24
,, D .	80	54	54	27
,, E	84	56	56	28
,, F	96	64	64	32
,, G	108	72	72	36
,, H	120	80	80	40
,, I	132	88	88	44

Except the Kodinar and Babra talukas, the remaining talukas of Amreli, Dhari, Jafrabad, Rajula, Lilia, Lathi, Kunkavav-Vadia, and Khambha are placed under the local areas falling in Class 'F'. In Kodinar taluka, 15 villages are placed under the local areas falling in Class 'B' and the remaining areas in the Class 'C'. In the case of Babra taluka, except 14 villages which are placed under 'H' Class, the remaining villages are in 'F' Class.

About transfer, very stringent provisions have been made. No transfer or partition can be made by a person holding land in excess of the ceiling area after the commencement of the Act. Any transfer or partition made between 15th January, 1959 (the date of the Nagpur resolution) and 1st September, 1961, shall be deemed to have been made with a view to defeating the object of the Act and shall be ignored in computing the surplus land held by the person The surplus so determined shall be taken in the first instance from the transferor to the extent of land available with him and the balance, if any, shall be taken in the first instance, from the transferee to whom the transfer was made after 1st September, 1961 and thereafter from the transferee to whom the transfer was made after 15th January, 1959 and before 1st September, 1961.

Under the law, the landowners are enjoined to declare the surplus area within the time prescribed. Elaborate provisions are made for computing the surplus lands.

In the district, there are no large substantial landholders with the result that the enforcement of the ceiling law will not result in a large surplus for distribution among the landless. However, by the end of April, 1969, in 110 cases, surplus and aggregating to 3,212 A. and 38 G.

were declared surplus under the law. Out of this area, possession has been taken only of an area measuring 1,603 acres.

EXEMPTIONS

The following categories of lands are, however, exempted from the ceiling limits :

(i) lands held in compact blocks of efficiently managed farms on which heavy investments or permanent structural improvements have been made and breaking of which will lead to a fall in production;

(ii) lands leased to or held by bodies or persons for growing fruit trees and used for that purpose for not less than the last 3 years;

(iii) lands held or leased by approved Land Mortgage Banks;

(iv) lands held or leased by approved co-operative societies for improvement of economic and social conditions of peasants or for ensuring the full and efficient use of land;

(v) lands leased or held by approved industrial undertaking which *bona fide* carries on any industrial operation,

(vi) lands being the property of a public trust for an educational purpose, hospital, Panjrapole, Gaushala or an institution for public religious worship, the entire income from which is for the purpose of the trust

The lands in the categories mentioned above will be taken into account in computing the ceiling area of a person, but if the extent of land held under such categories exceeds the ceiling area, the person will not be permitted to retain other lands.

THE SURVEY AND SETTLEMENT

In 1883, under Mr. Elliot was established the Survey and Settlement Department on the basis of the recommendations made in the joint Report of 1847 published by the Bombay Government. Under this Department, survey and settlement operations were started in different talukas of the Amreli district.

For the purpose of survey and settlement operations, *bigha* which is about 4/7th of an acre had been taken as standard unit and all the lands in Baroda State were measured in *bighas*. The basis or unit of assessment in the survey settlement operations was the survey number or plot of land of

a size cultivated by a peasant with a pair of bullocks. The arable land available for cultivation was split up in the survey numbers, the area of which was accurately ascertained by survey measurements. Afterwards, the soil of each number was valued according to its depth, texture, capacity for retention of moisture and other physical properties. Disadvantages (faults) were also taken into account. The valuation of the soil was expressed in annas of a rupee, sixteen annas representing generally the good soil. This was called anna-classification After fixing the basis of assessment, rates of assessment were worked out generally for talukas. The term of settlement was fixed for a period of 15 years. But revision settlement was made at the expiration of this period of the term was fixed for a period of 30 years. However, in Kodinar, the term was 15 years and in Amreli 20 years The statement given below shows the original and revision settlements carried out in the areas of Amreli prant —

		Original Settlement		Revision Settlement	
Sl No.	Taluka	Year in which settlement was made	Term of settlement	Year in which re-settlement was made	Term of settlement
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Damnagar	1885 1886 1887	15	1908	30
2.	Kodinar	1887	15	1913	15
3	Dhari	1887	15	1913	30
4	Khambha	1887	15	1913	30
5.	Okhamandal	1904	15	.	..
6.	Amreli	1886	15	1911	20
7	Bhimkatta . ..	1908	2	..	..

Source :

DESAI G H, *Amreli Prant Sarvasangrah*, Baroda, (1919), p. 224.

In 1929-30 the re-revision settlement of the Amreli taluka was done by the Settlement Commissioner, Shri Kasalkar He proposed increase of Rs. 35,000 in assessment having regard to the economic conditions of the taluka. This increase was not only excessive but oppressive. In August 1930, Shri Mohanlal Virji as President of the Khedut Mandal, Amreli led a deputation of 60 cultivators to acquaint the Baroda Government about the inequity of the re-revision settlement. The deputation met the Settlement Commissioner and the Dewan V. T Krishnamachari without success. Then an attempt was made to meet the Maharaja and submit a memorandum. With great difficulty, they could meet the Maharaja and submitted the memorandum. The Maharaja was convinced that the enhancement of assessment in the re-revision was excessive and issued orders to hold in abeyance the introduction of the revised rates of assessment. These orders, which he

issued on the eve of his departure for England, were subsequently not revised. As a result, the previous rates of assessment fixed during the revision settlement in 1911 continued unchanged. As a result of this agitation, the revision settlements, which fell due on expiry of the guarantee period, have not been taken up since. It is significant to note that Shri Mohanlal Virji of Amreli played an effective role in the agitation against the undue enhancement of the rates of assessment in the district.

In 1949, after merger of the former Amreli praut along with other areas of Baroda State into the Bombay State, the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879, was extended to it. The district after its reorganisation in July 1959 received areas which previously formed part of the former Saurashtra State. The position of the survey and settlement in these transferred areas is stated below.

FORMER SAURASHTRA STATE AREAS

Early History

At the time of reorganisation of the Saurashtra districts in 1959, 212 villages were transferred to the Amreli district from the Bhavnagar district due to territorial changes. Of the total 212 villages, 96 were from Rajula mahal, 42 from Jafrabad mahal, 38 from Lilia mahal and 36 from Lathi taluka. Four villages of the former Janjira State in Jafrabad mahal were originally surveyed and settled in 187,559 villages of the former Bhavnagar State were originally surveyed and settled in 1875. The remaining villages were unsurveyed. The revision settlement was made in 1927-28. All the 17 villages transferred from Bhavnagar district and included in the Dhari taluka of Amreli district were originally unsurveyed and unsettled, but they were surveyed and classified in 1956.

From the Rajkot district 125 villages were transferred to the Amreli district. Out of them, 59 were from Babra taluka and 66 were from Vadia taluka. Out of them, 2 villages of the former Navanagar State were originally surveyed and settled in 1931 and 3 villages of Vadia taluka originally belonging to the former Junagadh State were surveyed and settled in 1896.

From the Junagadh district, 25 villages were transferred to the Amreli district. Out of them, 10 were from Visavadar taluka, 11 from Una taluka and 4 from Bhesan taluka. They were originally surveyed and settled in 1890-91. Their revision settlement took place in 1925--1931.

The position regarding settlement of the villages in the district is as under:

Sl. No	Name of Taluka	No. of villages classified after 1948 as per Saurashtra Classification Rules	No. of villages classified as per Bombay Government Classification Rules	No. of villages which remained unclassified	Year of Original Settlement	Year of Revisional Settlement
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Amreli	10	4	57	1894	1926-27
2.	Dhari .	27	11	47	1894	1926-27
3.	Kodinar	.		64	1894	1926-27
4	Khambha .			29 7	1894 1896	1926-27 1931
5.	Lathi .. .	16	.	23 11	1894 1875	1926-27 1927
6.	Lilia .. .			38	1875	1927
7.	Kunkavav-Vadia	63		6	1875	1905
8.	Babra . ..	55		2	1931	1958
9.	Rajula	42	.	50	1875	1927
10.	Jafrabad ..	35	.	4 4	1896 1897	1931 ...
	Total .	248	15	342		

The district comprises 10 talukas formed out of the villages of the former Baroda, Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh States

CLASSIFICATION OF SOIL

In the Amreli district in the areas formerly belonging to the Baroda State and in the villages of the former Junagadh State, classification of soil was made during the regimes of those States on the pattern of the soil classification system of Gujarat In the remaining villages merged from Bhavnagar and Rajkot districts, soil classification has been made according to the system of the Saurashtra State Although Saurashtra soil classification system is akin to that of Gujarat, it differs slightly in respect of soil classes

In the villages where soils are not classified, the soil classification is being carried out according to the system of classification adopted by the Saurashtra Government in 1955-56 Although it is broadly analogous to the Gujarat classification system it differs slightly from it in respect of soil classes and their values, and details of sub-soil classification and average classification values Instead of working out average classification values for each survey number or its sub-division, the areas with different classification values in the same survey number or sub-division are converted into areas of 16 annas classification value Unlike Gujarat classification system,

irrigated lands according to Saurashtra classification system are treated as *bagayat* lands. The sub-soil classification system is more or less similar to that of Gujarat classification system, but differs from the latter in so far as the sub-soil classification scale is not related to soil classification values, and 3 or 4 acres of land, as the case may be was considered as area from each *kos* or water-bag on the existing wells instead of all the lands in the zone or 'Vaga' adjudged to have the facility However, where soils of part of a village are classified before being *khalsa*, and those of the remaining part are to be classified, the system followed in part of the village is adopted for the rest of the village to maintain uniformity

For revising/fixing land revenue assessment in merged State areas of the pre-reorganised Bombay State area, the Land Revenue Rules 19-N and 19-O respectively have been framed under section 52 of the Bombay Land Revenue Code

The Land Revenue Rule 19-N applies to the merged territories only and provides for continuance of the prevailing rates of assessment until the settlement of land revenue is fixed under Chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code or the rates of assessment are fixed under section 52 of the Code whichever event occurs earlier. It also provides for reduction of the existing rates if they are found to be higher than the Union areas rates. Thus the main objective of the Rule 19-N is the continuance of the existing rates of assessment and necessary reduction therein by way of remission for removal of inequalities in the assessment of lands in the merged areas. The Rule 19-N will thus apply to the areas transferred from Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh districts to the Amreli district

The Land Revenue Rule 19-O, however, applies to the whole pre-merger Bombay State areas, territories and the enclaves. In the case of Amreli district, Rule 19-O applies to the former Bombay State areas It provides for fixing *ad hoc* assessment under section 52 of the Land Revenue Code subject to the provisions of section 7 of the Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagirs Abolition) Act, 1953 Detailed provisions are made for fixing assessment by classifying the dry crop, rice and irrigated lands into good, medium and inferior, having regard to the sale value of agricultural lands, the yield of principal crops and the rental values of agricultural land. After classifying lands in this manner, the average gross produce per acre of each sub-class of land for a period of 5 years is to be ascertained, and the rates of assessment per acre for each sub-class of land calculated at 35 per cent of ⅙th of the price of the average gross agricultural produce is to be fixed in a group of villages homogenious as far as possible in respect of physical configuration, climate, rainfall, markets, communications and standard of husbandry Such

a detailed procedure is, however, not to be undertaken in the case of unassessed land in a settled village or unsettled village surrounded by villages settled under the Code. In the case of such unsettled land or village, the assessment is to be fixed according to the standard rate obtaining in the same or neighbouring settled villages.

The rates of assessment fixed under the rules are to remain in force for a period of 10 years or until the regular settlement is made under the Code, whichever is earlier.

The sub-rule (5) which was added to the Land Revenue Rule 19-O with effect from 18th May, 1956, empowered Government to declare, in the case of any merged territory or enclave, that the provisions of the Rule 19-O would not apply to the areas which were assessed immediately before the merger of such territory or inclusion of enclave according to the survey and settlement law which generally corresponded to the provisions of Chapters VIII and VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code. Accordingly, the State Government declared, *inter alia*, merged territories of the former Baroda State as falling in this category. The effect of this sub-rule was that, there would be no need to fix assessment in these areas according to the provisions of the Land Revenue Rule 19-O.

Thus the Rule 19-O is framed in order to fix the rates of assessment in the surveyed and unsettled or unsurveyed and unsettled lands of villages on an *ad hoc* basis till the scientific survey and settlement operations are introduced under the provisions of the Land Revenue Code. This interim measure was adopted by Government because it was not possible immediately to undertake a full-dress survey and settlement for all such areas at a time.

On the analogy of Land Revenue Rules 19-N and 19-O the Land Revenue Rules 17 and 18 have been framed for the Saurashtra areas under the provision of the Bombay Land Revenue Code.

The Land Revenue Rule 17 provides for the fixation of the amount of assessment to be paid under section 52 of the Code on all agricultural lands which are not wholly exempt from the payment of land revenue and for which the assessment has not been fixed under the provisions of Chapter VIII-A of the Code. Detailed provisions have been made for fixing the assessment. The Rule 17 embodies almost all the factors to be taken into consideration while fixing assessment under Chapter VIII-A. The assessment is to be worked out on the basis of the factors embodied and the procedure laid down in the Rule.

The Collector shall arrange the groups of villages homogeneous in respect of physical configuration, climate and rainfall, prices and yield of

principal crops. Then he shall classify lands into three categories, *viz.*, dry crop, rice and irrigated. He shall then determine the comparable Union areas for each group on the basis of homogeneity of soil and the cropping pattern. Thereafter, he shall fix the respective rates of the dry crop and rice land in each group having regard to the respective rates of assessment in the comparable Union areas. For the lands irrigated by wells, the rates of assessment shall not exceed twice the rates fixed for such lands in the comparable Union areas. Regard, however, shall be had to the quantity and quality of water available for irrigation

Where individual holdings have been surveyed and classified under Chapter VIII of the Land Revenue Code, the assessment shall be fixed on the basis of survey and classification Such holdings shall first be classified into dry crop, rice and irrigated and then sub-divided into good, medium and inferior classes after taking into account the yield of the principal crop and the *ad hoc* classification. Thereafter the rates will be fixed first for the good lands, and then they will be applied to medium lands and inferior lands which will be 2/3rd and 1/3rd respectively.

In the case of unassessed lands in village deemed settled under Land Revenue Rule 117-R, the rates of assessment shall be fixed on the basis of the standard rates applicable to those lands.

These rates, which are to be fixed initially for one revenue year, are to continue till they are revised by the Collector

THE LAND REVENUE RULE-18

The Land Revenue Rule 18 applies to the deemed settled areas which formed part of the former States of Bhavnagar, Jamnagar, Junagadh, Gondal etc For the purposes of this Rule, the settlement groups of villages of the deemed settled areas are compared with the settlement groups of villages of the Union areas on the basis of permanent and semi-permanent factors of physical configuration, climate and rainfall, markets and communications and standard of husbandry The rates obtaining in merged areas (deemed settled areas) are compared with those obtaining in the comparable Union areas and the excess of the former over the latter has been remitted and the former is continued if lower than the latter under this Rule

SURVEY OPERATIONS

The survey and classification of lands are the pre-requisites for introduction of settlement and record of rights The survey determines the area and the boundary of land and thereby preserves the rights of the landholder, while the classification of land is a process under which the land is classified according to the quality of soil.

The Survey and Settlement Department was established in 1883 in the former Baroda State. The survey and settlement operations were started in the Amreli district of Baroda State in 1889 and completed by 1908. The survey operations carried out in various talukas of the district are detailed in Appendix I appended at the end of the Chapter. When the Amreli district came to form a part of Bombay State in 1949, 16 *inami* villages of Dhari and Amreli talukas were unsurveyed and unsettled. The survey and settlement operations of these villages were completed between 1956 and 1960

The survey operations in 256 villages of former Saurashtra State merged in the district, were carried on after merger and completed between 1950 and 1959 The settlement operations of these villages were completed between 1959 and 1968

Much remained to be done to bring the land revenue system on a par with the areas formerly included in other districts of Saurashtra. Survey and settlement operations had to be carried out Unsurveyed lands had to be surveyed, and surveyed lands had to be resurveyed to conform to new standards Lands had to be classified and settled on scientific basis so as to remove existing disparities in the rates of assessment and bring down the incidence of land revenue to a reasonable level. To achieve this end, the State of Saurashtra set up a separate Department of Survey and Settlement under the Director of Land Records and Settlement with the Superintendent of Survey in charge of survey operations and District Inspectors of Land Records in charge of survey and land records of districts.

Those merged villages which were not surveyed before were surveyed under the scheme of introduction of survey and classification during the Saurashtra regime. No village now remains unsurveyed in this district

Method of Survey—In the case of former Baroda State areas, the method of survey adopted was that of *chok-mapni* system, according to which the whole area to be surveyed was laid down in the *choks* of 32 chains, which were further sub-divided into smaller blocks of 4 by 10 chains, each chain being equal to 80 feet The rest of the method was the same as above The areas of each survey number and its sub-divisions and for each class of land comprised therein were separately entered in the land records under an indicative number *i e*, survey number, the numbering of sub-divisions being subordinate to the number of parent survey

The methods of survey used in the villages of Bhavnagar and Junagadh States were to have a traverse laid down on the village boundaries

with the help of theodolite, then to have an *adhar* line and one or two supplementary *adhar* lines and then to do detailed survey of each field by chain and cross-staff method. The rest of the method was the same as above. All the unsurveyed areas have since been surveyed and no area in this district now remains unsurveyed.

Revenue Administration

The Revenue Department is the oldest and the best known department to the general public. The Collector of the district is the head of the department. Besides revenue administration, the department administers all branches of Government for which a separate department is not necessary. For example, the department administers the Court of Wards Act, the Stamp Act, the National Savings Schemes, etc. Till recently it administered the Money-lenders Act. Although there is Registration Department under the Director of Land Records, the Collector is the District Registrar. Although there is a separate Land Records Department, the work of the city survey is looked after by the Collector and the Mamlatdar works as City Survey Officer. Although the Jails are under control of the Inspector General of Prisons, the work of sub-jails is supervised by the District Magistrate. Thus the department carries out different works for other departments for which they do not have the necessary staff. Further, whenever new scheme or legislation is to be enforced, Government entrusts the work to this department on account of its well trained and extensive staff. The services of the department are also requisitioned for all types of elections, population census and civil-supply. In short, the services of the department are required whenever the people in bulk have to be dealt with or information is to be collected for which no separate machinery exists.

However, the main functions of the department are collection of land revenue, maintenance of law and order, development and co-ordination of the activities of other departments. These cover settlement and administration of land revenue, maintenance of revenue records, enforcement of land reforms, acquisition and requisition of property, excise duty, territorial changes, wakfs, administration of certain taxes, entertainment taxes education cess and collection of arrears of revenues of other departments in the district. After introduction of the Panchayati Raj in April 1963 many of the revenue duties, particularly functions regarding development programmes and collection of land revenue have been transferred to the Panchayati Raj institutions. Still the revenue duties of maintaining law and order, maintenance of land records, settlement of land revenue civil supply and co-ordination of the activities of other departments in the district continue with the Revenue Department.

The hierarchy of the revenue officials under the Collector consists of the Prant Officer or Deputy Collector in charge of a sub-division, Mamlatdar in charge of a taluka assisted by Aval Karkuns, Circle Inspectors and Talatis functioning at lower level, as also maintenance of land records. The collection of land revenue has been entrusted to gram and nagar panchayats. The Taluka Development Officer is invested with all the powers of a Mamlatdar in the matter of revenue collection. The Circle Inspectors are placed under his direct control and are also responsible for the work of the Talati-*cum*-Mantri who looks after collection of revenue and maintenance of village records. There are 25 Circle Inspectors in the district of whom 13 work under the Collector and 12 under the District Development Officer. In matters relating maintenance and repairs of boundary marks and crop inspection their work is also supervised by the District Inspector of Land Records.

FUNCTIONS OF THE LAND RECORDS DEPARTMENT

The Land Records Department in the State is divided into circles each in charge of a Superintendent of Land Records, with District Inspectors of Land Records at the district level.

The functions of the Land Records Department are (1) to maintain survey, classification and settlement records up-to-date by keeping careful notes of all changes, and for this purpose to carry out field operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records, (2) to collect and provide statistics necessary for the sound administration of all matters connected with land, (3) to help reduce, simplify and cheapen litigation in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other records, (4) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of Record of Rights and of the periodical inspection of boundary marks, (5) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations, (6) to organise and carry out village site and city surveys and arrange for their proper maintenance, (7) undertake special surveys for private individuals and public bodies (such as survey of *inam* and other non-ryotwari lands and villages), surveys in connection with railways, municipal and local development projects, town planning schemes, as also for the Defence and other Government departments, (8) to maintain up-to-date village, taluka and district maps, reprint them and arrange for their distribution to various Government departments for administrative purpose and sale to the public and (9) to train revenue officers in survey and settlement matters.

The District Inspector of Land Records, Amreli is the principal officer in charge of the Land Records Department at the district level. He is a gazetted officer of a Mamlatdar's rank appointed by and under the administrative control of the Settlement Commissioner and Director of

Land Records, Ahmedabad and is directly subordinate to and under the technical control of the Superintendent of Land Records, Rajkot Circle, Rajkot. He is also subordinate to the district Collector and has to carry out all administrative orders of the Collector in the matter of survey and land records. He is assisted by one Headquarters Assistant, one District Surveyor, 11 Surveyors and other administrative staff.

CITY AND VILLAGE SITE SURVEYS

The city survey work of Amreli town was completed in 1926 during the time of former Baroda State. But, till 1st August, 1949 it was not treated as regular city survey. However, for its maintenance work a permanent post of a Maintenance Surveyor was created. The city survey office, Amreli is under the Mamlatdar who is invested with the powers of a City Survey Officer, Amreli The area of Amreli town has expanded and Government[1] in 1968 have sanctioned the staff for introduction of City Survey in the extended area. Accordingly theodolite survey work was completed on 31st January, 1970 and detailed planetable survey work is under progress since 1st February, 1970.

Special Staff—For the survey of lands used for grazing purpose of merged areas of the former Saurashtra State in the district, Government has sanctioned a special staff which comprises in all one Head Surveyor and five Surveyors.

The survey of 127 villages in 9 talukas *viz.*, Babra (2),[2] Liliya (14) Rajula (25), Amreli (7), Dhari (3), Kunkavav (2), Khambha (5), Lathi (14) and Kodinar (1) was undertaken with effect from 15th November, 1969 and was completed by May, 1970.

Record of Rights—The Record of Rights has been introduced in all the villages of the district. After survey, the Land Records Department supplies the *mapni* or survey register and map to the revenue officials for compilation of Record of Rights. Section 135 B(1) of the Land Revenue Code provides that the Record of Rights should contain the following particulars :

(a) names of all persons who are holders, occupants, owners, or mortgagees of the land or assignees of the land or assignees of the rent or revenue thereof; (b) the nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and conditions or liabilities attached thereto; (c) rent or revenue, if any, payable by or to any such persons, and (d) such other particulars as the State Government may prescribe under the Land Revenue Rules.

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1. Resolution R. D. No. CTS/1067/6/9136-h, dated nil-March, 1968.
2. The figures in brackets indicate the number of villages

The State Government has now applied these provisions to all tenancies by Notification under section 135-B (2) of the Code, whereunder any acquisition of right in land is to be reported to the village officer within 3 months by the person acquiring it, unless the right is acquired under a registered document.

In the district, village maps are prepared for all the surveyed villages showing survey numbers, their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, rivers, *nullahs*, forests, hills, etc., from the detailed *tippans* of individual survey numbers. They are generally drawn on a scale of 1" = 20 chains = 1 furlong or 201.17 metres. From these village maps, taluka and district maps are constructed.

INCOME FROM LAND REVENUE AND SPECIAL CESSES CONNECTED WITH IT

Land revenue is one of the important sources of income in the district forming 80 per cent of the total tax revenues of the district. The Statement XI.1 shows the demand, collection, remission and suspension in respect of land revenue for the years 1964-65, 1965-66 asnd 1966-67:—

STATEMENT XI.1

Land Revenue Demand, Collection, etc., for the Years 1964-65 1965-66 and 1966-67

	1964-65 Rs. P	1965-66 Rs. P.	1966-67 Rs. P.
1. Demand			
(a) Current ..	3,261,092 84	4,050,732 92	3,936,014 00
(b) Arrears	1,757,756 12	1,306,455 62	2,019,674.00
Total ..	*5,018,848.96*	*5,357,188 54*	*5,955,688.00*
2. Collection .	3,673,365 51	3,287,017 32	2,565,845.00
3. Remission	39,027 83	50,578 81	95,260.00
4. Suspension	139,780 31	579,943 37	1,509,225 00
5. Percentage of collection	73 19	61 35	43.08

Source:
District Development Officer, Amreli.

The statement shows a general trend towards increase in gross consolidated original demand. The increase, however, is more pronounced in 1966-67 as compared to previous years. The increase in gross consolidated demand is due to transfer of lands from agricultural purposes to non-agricultural purposes. This shows that the non-agricultural activities are on the increase. The percentage of collection, barring the year 1966-67, has been fairly good. Remission orders in the district were issued due

to decrease in assessment according to Land Revenue Rules 17 and 19-O. Similarly scarcity and semi-scarcity conditions were responsible for the suspension of land revenue.

Local Fund Cess

Since time immemorial, when any work of local public utility such as repairs of village tank, road or dharmashala were to be undertaken it was a custom to raise local contribution to meet the cost. The quantum of contribution was fixed according to a person's ability to pay. Such amounts were collected by the Vahivatdar and only after collection, the public work could be commenced. Much delay and inconvenience were caused in collection of public contribution. In order to meet this difficulty and to levy contribution in an equitable manner on the basis of land ownership a fund was collected from the year 1892-93 in the British India. This concept of levy of a local cess was conceived during the survey and settlement operations in the Baroda State. At first. this cess was consolidated with the land revenue and the State Government allotted funds from the general revenue for local works in each district. But since the Maharaja wanted to set up Local Boards for introduction of self-government, he directed in 1903-04 that the proceeds of the local cess should be separated from the corpus of the land revenue and made over to the Local Boards.

In the Baroda State, the local cess was first imposed only on Government lands in the Patan taluka in the year 1892-93 and was subsequently extended to other areas. In the beginning the rate of the cess varied from district to district. In 1902 the levy of the local cess was extended to the Amreli district not only on Government lands but on alienated lands also. The rate was made uniform at 1 anna per rupee of assessment and the proceeds of the cesses were made over to the District Local Boards after deducting 2 per cent as collection charges Even after merger this cess was continued. Consequent upon the application of the Bombay District Local Boards Act, 1923 by the Government of Bombay, this cess was continued to be levied under section 93 of the Act. It was formerly collected by the Revenue Department along with land revenue. But after the implementation of the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961, it is collected by the village panchayats, as the function of collecting land revenue and local fund cess has been transferred to the panchayats. This cess which was first levied at the rate of 20 paise in every rupee of land revenue is now recovered at the enhanced rate of 50 paise since 1st July, 1966 under section 169 of the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961. The amount realised by way of local cess, in the district was Rs. 937,767 in 1965-66, Rs. 881,765 in 1966-67 and Rs. 834,365 in 1967-68. The decrease in local fund cess was due to decrease in land revenue.

At the request of the gram and nagar panchayat the State Government may levy an additional cess up to 25 paise on every rupee of land revenue payable to Government in the area within jurisdiction of such panchayat. If such panchayat undertakes for the benefit of the community any special work or project, which is to be completed within a specified time and for which additional funds are needed, it may pass resolution at its meeting and after obtaining previous permission of the district panchayat, apply to State Government to increase the rate up to 100 per cent in the land revenue, payable to the State Government as ordinary land revenue

IRRIGATION CESS

The irrigation cess is an annual charge payable by every land owner of cultivable area under command of a canal system. The cess is a fixed charge per acre and is not liable to variation from year to year. This charge was made leviable on old irrigation works with effect from 13th February, 1954, while in the case of new irrigation works, it was decided to make the cess payable after 3 years from the commencement of the irrigation. It was found that the farmers did not utilise the full irrigation potential. In order to pressurise recalcitrant cultivators to use irrigation facilites, with effect from 13th February, 1963, compulsory irrigation cess at the rate of Rs. 2.50 per acre per annum is being levied on all lands within the command of irrigation work irrespective of the fact whether irrigation water is used or not, in accordance with the provisions of the Bombay Irrigation Act, 1879. This compulsory levy is primarily meant to cover the working expenses of the canal system.

In the Amreli district, the irrigation facilities are provided by the Khodiar Irrigation Dam. The annual demand of the irrigation cess works out to Rs. 2,160.44, but the cess has remained in arrears since 1964-65.

EDUCATION CESS

After formation of the separate State of Gujarat for promotion of education a surcharge on agricultural and non-agricultural lands was levied by enacting the Gujarat Education Cess Act, 1962. The Act came into force from 1st August, 1962. An Education Cess Fund has been created out of the receipts from (1) surcharge on all lands, agricultural and non-agricultural assessed to land revenue and (2) tax on lands and buildings in urban areas. A surcharge of 20 per cent is levied with effect from 1st August, 1962 on agricultural lands which are assessed or held for the purpose of agriculture and not used for any purpose unconnected with agriculture. A surcharge varying from 12½ per cent to 75 per cent of non-agricultural assessment is levied on all unalienated lands subject to non-agricultural assessment and on all alienated lands (excluding village sites) used for purposes other than agricultural. These rates have been brought into force from 1st August, 1962.

In the urban areas the lands and buildings are liable to rates of tax which vary from 2% to 4% per cent of the annual letting value of the property. These rates have come into force from 1st October, 1965.

The surcharge levied on agricultural as well as non-agricultural land is transferred at the end of the year to the State Education Cess Fund and utilised on schemes for promotion of education in the State. During 1963-64 Government has directed that one third of the tax collected on lands and buildings within the municipal area should be given to the municipalities as grant with effect from 1st August, 1962, the date from which the tax has been levied. Against a total demand of Rs. 735,406.93 a sum of Rs. 643,482.68 was collected as education cess in 1966-67 in the district.

THE BHOODAN MOVEMENT

In order to reduce inequalities in the distribution of land, legislative measures for abolition of intermediaries and land ceilings have been adopted by the State Government. These measures have not helped solve the problem of landless labourers. In this context, the contribution of the Bhoodan Movement as one of the schemes of land distribution to the landless has got a special value. Secondly, this movement is a reminder that the land problem cannot be solved by legislation alone. The Bhoodan Movement attempts at the abolition of the concept of private ownership. The fundamental principle of the movement is that all land belongs to God. Man is only a trustee of the land which should be treated as a social agent of production for the community.

This movement, which arose in Telengana region in 1951, spread during the tours on foot undertaken by Shri Vinobaji. The movement, which raised high hopes and aspirations among the landless in the beginning, has not made much headway particularly in this district. This is evident from the fact that till 1966-67, only 2,723 A. and 21 G. were donated and distributed among the landless labourers.

RURAL WAGES

There is a large number of persons in this district who possess no land of their own but depend upon agriculture for their livelihood. They are labourers who are employed to work on the field either casually during harvesting season or throughout the year as annual workers. According to the 1961 Census, 175,683 persons in the district were returned as cultivators and 44,111 as agricultural labourers, the latter constituting 25.11 per cent of the former. This section analyses the difference in the wages earned for different operations in which they are engaged. In 1966-67 the farm labourers numbered 52,268. On the basis of cultivated area the active farm labour population works out of 5% per 100 acres.

Most of the landholders employ casual field labourers only when there is a rush on the farm and pay them on daily basis usually in cash and sometime in kind.

The farm labourers are recruited both for permanent and casual employment. The important system of permanent labour that prevails in the district is *sathi*. The main castes from which labourers are drawn are Kanbi, Rajputs, Harijan, Bhangi, Kharva, Koli and Khant.

The casual labour employment is common in the district. The period of employment ranges from June to October and also from November to February. The period of employment so far as farm labour is concerned ranges from April to March, each year

WAGE PAYMENT

The employment and wages appear to differ not merely from area to area, crop to crop or season to season, but also from place to place, and from village to village. These complexities are heightened by the prevalence of casual labour employment on daily wages with the system of attached labour under varying shades of bondage. The statement given below indicates the average wage rates prevailing during different seasons :-

The Farm Pattern, 1967 68

Sl. No.	Name of the Season	Wage rates (in Rs)		
		Men	Women	Children
1.	Monsoon	3 to 5	2 to 3	1 50
2.	Winter	2 to 4	2 to 3	1 to 2
3.	Summer	3	2	1 50

It will thus be observed that rural wage structure is highly complex. The wages are different for men and women. From the statement it is also observed that children are also employed in agriculture and they draw a distinct set of wages. In quite a few situation contracts of periodic employments or for specific work, the payment is partly in cash, partly in kind like food and other eatables and partly in clothing. The system of *sathi* described elsewhere also indicates a peculiar mode of wage payment. The wage rates in the district vary according to demand and supply of labour and the proximity of urban marketing centres. Labourers who are nearer the town prefer to go and work there instead of bargaining for a low wage rate in their own villages. The tendency is, however, that females rest content with whatever little they get at their own place. Casual labourers work from sunrise to sunset with a break of about two hours for lunch at noon. The main source of labour is the village

itself, though at times during the harvesting season help of labourers from surrounding villages is also called for to meet the local shortage. Field labour being seasonal, they have to seek alternate employment during the off season. Such work includes collecting and selling of fire-wood or hay, spinning and weaving. Harvesting of crops like *bajri*, *jowar*, groundnut and wheat is given on contract basis. The system is known as *udhad* wherein labourers are paid a certain quantity of grain for harvesting a particular piece of land.

Those cultivators whose holdings are large enough to provide continuous and regular employment for the whole year engage annual servants also. They are known as *sathi*. A *sathi* binds himself to do all types of farm work and is available all the hours of days and nights. The contract is entered into generally for one year and renewed year after year with the consent of the parties. In addition to cash remuneration a *sathi* is provided with other facilities such as food, clothing, shoes and residential accomodation. Normally payment to a *sathi* is made at the end of the year, but when necessity arises, he is given small amounts of money occasionally by way of part payment. The annual wages paid to *sathi* (males) varied from Rs 300 to Rs. 1,200 in the district.

ARTISANS

Some artisans of the village are actively connected with the cultivators at various stages of operations. They are the *vasvayas* of the old village economy who still survive, albeit in a less recognised form. They are paid annually in kind at harvest time, for the services rendered to the landholders. The *vasvayas* include *suthar* (carpenter) *luhar* (blacksmith) *kumbhar* (potter) and *darjee* (tailor). The payment in kind is gradually disappearing and many farmers now pay in cash. The commodities given by way of wages include food grains, pulses and sometimes a bundle of fodder and seasonal vegetables.

REGISTRATION OF DOCUMENTS

Under section 17 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908), the registration of instruments of immovable property is compulsory. These documents are divided into four categories, *viz*.,

(1) Instruments of gift of immovable property,

(2) other non-testamentary instruments, which purport or operate to create, declare, assign, limit or extinguish any right, title or interest of the value of Rs. 100 or upwards to or in immovable property and receipt or payment of any consideration of such documents.

(3) leases of immovable property from year to year or for any term exceeding one year or reserving a yearly rent, and

(4) non-testamentary instruments transferring or assigning any decrees, order of a court or any award when such decree or order or award purports or operates to create, declare, assign, limit or extinguish any right, title or interest of the value of Rs. 100 and upwards to or in immovable property.

There are certain documents however, the registration of which is optional under section 18 of the Act. These are documents of immovable property valued at less than Rs. 100/-, leases exempted under section 17, wills, notices of pending suits or proceedings referred to in section 52 of the Transfer of Property Act, and all other documents not required to be registered under section 17. As a rule, fees are levied for the registration of all documents, but the State Government has exempted co-operative societies registered under the Gujarat Co-operative Societies Act, 1961 from the payment of such fees. Certain types of societies enjoy restricted exemption in respect of certain documents involving consideration upto a prescribed limit, registration fees being charged on documents with higher consideration.

Registry Offices—There were ten Sub-Registrars in the district as on 31st October, 1962 *viz.*, Amreli, Dhari-Khambha, Kodinar, Vadia, Lathi, Damnagar, Babra, Rajula, Jafrabad and Liha. The first four were under full time Sub-Registrars while the rest were under the control of Treasury Aval Karkuns of the talukas working as *ex-officio* Sub-Registrars. From 1st November, 1962 offices having lighter work were merged with the neighbouring Sub-Registry offices. In 1967-68 there were six Sub-Registries in the district *viz.*, Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar, Kunkavav-Vadia, Lathi and Rajula.

DISTRICT REGISTRAR

The Collector, Amreli, is the *ex-officio* District Registrar who exercises powers of supervision and inspection over the entire registration staff in the district. Though the Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector General of Registration, the District Registrar has powers to fill in the temporary vacancies. He hears appeals and applications preferred to him under sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) against refusals to register documents by the Sub-Registrars under him. Under sections 25 and 34 of the same Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and directs such documents to be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the

proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refund in the case of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. Under section 42 of the Act a will or codicil may be deposited in a sealed cover and it may be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it after the depositor's death. He is also authorised to record and register births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriage Registration Act (VI of 1886).

Sub-Registrar

The main functions of the Sub-Registrar are to register documents, keep a record of all documents registered and to send to officers concerned extracts from documents affecting immovable property in respect of which a record of rights is maintained. Every Sub-Registrar is an *ex-officio* Sub-Registrar for the registration of births and deaths. He is also an *ex-officio* Registrar under Parsee Marriage and Divorce Act, 1936. The Sub-Registrar working as Headquarters Sub-Registrar at Amreli is also the Marriage Officer for the Amreli district and is vested with the powers of solemnising and registering marriages under the Special Marriage Act, 1954.

The Headquarters Sub-Registrar, Amreli, assists the Collector in adjudication of documents impounded under section 33 of the Bombay Stamp Act, 1958 (IX of 1958) and also in the adjudication of cases under section 31 of the Bombay Stamp Act, 1958.

In the year 1967-68, the annual income of the Registration Department in the district was Rs. 53,316 and the annual expenditure was Rs. 38,635. Copying of documents is done by hand in all offices except Amreli Sub-Registry where photo-copying is in existence since 1953. Out of 6,138 documents registered in the district, 5,896 documents falling under compulsory registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 18,637,890 and 145 documents falling under optional registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 618,980, 17 documents affecting movable property were of the aggregate value of Rs. 5,970 and 80 were wills.

Stamps

The Superintendent of Stamps, Ahmedabad is the authority controlling the supply and sale of non-postal stamps. The Collector as the administrative head of the district is in charge of the entire work relating to stamps. He has to regulate the sale of stamps and ensure collection of stamps duties. As there is no treasurer in the treasury, the work of sale of stamps to vendors and the public is done by a Stamp Senior Clerk who is also an *ex-officio* stamp vendor under the direct supervision of the Treasury Officer. He is in charge of the local depot at Amreli and

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responsible for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to branch depots in the district and sale to the public. Refund of value of unused, spoiled and obsolete stamps is not within the competence of the Treasury Officer, as these powers are not delegated to him, after the separation of the Treasury from Revenue Department. These powers are now exercised by the Collector, Deputy Collectors, Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris. A branch depot is located at every taluka headquarters and is in charge of a Sub-Treasury Officer.

As per Revenue Department Notification No. GHM/M/STP/1068/54035-H, dated 13th January, 1969 all the Sub-Treasury Officers are appointed as "Proper Officers" for the purpose of the Act, and under the rule 9 of the Bombay Stamp Rules 1939, they are empowered to affix the special adhesive stamps on the unexecuted documents presented for stamping by the public.

For the convenience of the public, stamps are sold not only at the district depot and branch depots but also at various other centres by licensed stamp vendors. who are appointed by the Collector. There are 20 such stamp-vendors in the district. The non-judicial stamps in the case of instruments requiring stamp duty of the value exceeding Rs. 250/- and the court-fee stamps exceeding Rs. 125/- are sold directly to the public by the treasuries and sub-treasuries. Stamps below these denominations are sold by authorised stamp vendors.

The Sub Treasury Officers act as *ex officio* stamp vendors by virtue of their post. From June 5, 1965, the stamp vendors are authorised to sell non-judicial stamps upto Rs. 250.

The total income realised from the sale of stamps in the Amreli district in the year 1966-67 was Rs. 144,247.21 for non-judicial stamps and Rs. 361,029.50 for judicial stamps. The vendors are allowed a small discount which in the year 1967-68 amounted to Rs. 13,146.65 for non-judicial stamps and Rs. 878.19 for judicial stamps.

OTHER SOURCES OF INCOME

In order to meet the growing expenditure on developmental activities, the State and Central Governments have to augment their financial resources by tapping additional sources of revenue. Other sources are Sales Tax, Taxes on Motor Vehicles, State excise, Central excise, Income Tax, etc. These are briefly examined below.

Sales Tax

After the merger of the Amreli district into the Bombay State in 1949, the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1946 was extended to the Amreli district, which

remained in operation upto the 31st October, 1952. On 1st November, 1952 the Bombay Government promulgated the Bombay Sales Tax Ordinance, which embodied the principle of multi-point sales tax. This Ordinance was challenged in the Bombay High Court which struck down certain provisions as *ultra vires* of the Constitution. To remedy the situation, a fresh law called the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1953 was enacted. It embodied the principle of double-point tax in lieu of the multi-point tax. It was applied also to the Amreli district with effect from 1st April, 1954.

Since different systems of sales tax operated in the constituent units of the former Bombay State, the Bombay Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri Babubhai J. Patel to evolve a uniform system of sales tax for the entire State. On the basis of the recommendations of the Committee, the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959 was enacted and enforced from 1st January, 1960. After bifurcation of the Bombay State, this Act of 1959 was adopted by the Gujarat State. In order to rationalise the tax structure and to further simplify the procedure of assessment and with a view to removing the hardships of the dealers, the Government of Gujarat constituted in 1967 the Sales Tax Enquiry Committee with Shri M. M Odedra as Chairman. The terms of reference of the Committee were to examine the existing system of sales tax, to review its working, and to make recommendations for the rationalisation of the structure of sales tax, simplification of the procedures, measures for removal of hardships of dealers and streamlining the administrative system. In making recommendations, the Committee was asked to take into account the revenue requirements of the State and measures for avoidance and evasion of tax. This Committee submitted its report to Government on 28th June, 1968. Its main recommendation relates to the provision of a single-point tax On the basis of this recommendation, a Sales Tax Bill, 1969 was introduced. Its salient features are (i) that a single-point levy was to be combined with a double point levy; (ii) that a levy of retail sales tax should be abolished and (iii) that small manufacturers and traders of special category with an annual turnover of Rs. 3,000 should be exempted from the tax. The enactment was called the Gujarat Sales Tax Act, 1969 and was made applicable to the entire State with effect from 6th May, 1970. The Act will greatly benefit the traders and small manufacturers by simplification of procedure and rationalisation of tax structure.

The total collection of sales tax in 1966-67 under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956, and the Bombay Sales of Intoxicants Taxation Act, 1953 came to Rs. 54,72,704.

TAX ON MOTOR VEHICLES

Tax on motor vehicles constitutes one of the important sources of State revenues. The Motor Vehicles Department is responsible for the proper

dministration of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939 and Rules made hereunder. It also collects taxes on motor vehicles and passengers and oods carried by road under (i) the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1958, 2) the Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958 and 3) the Gujarat Carriage of Goods Taxation Act, 1962. It also carried out n general the duties and responsibilities enjoined on it under the provisions f these Acts.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP

The Department is headed by the Director of Transport with headquarters at Ahmedabad. From October, 1963, the State has been divided nto three regions *viz.* Ahmedabad, Baroda and Rajkot. Accordingly, there re three Regional Offices. Each of them is being headed by the Regional 'ransport Officer. The district of Amreli has been placed in the Rajkot egion. Under the Rajkot region, there is a sub-regional office at Bhavnagar omprising revenue districts of Surendranagar, Bhavnagar and Amerli xcept *Kodinar taluka). The Kodinar taluka is placed under the administrative* control of the Regional Transport Officer, Rajkot.

Separate figures of revenue for the Amreli district are not available but ey are available for the entire sub-region of Bhavnagar. The net collecons of the revenue for the districts of Bhavnagar, Surendranagar and mreli (except Kodinar taluka) for the year 1966-67 were as under :—

	Name of the Act	Amount in Rs.
1.	Bombay Motor Vehicles Act, 1958	3,157,745.65
2.	Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1958	245,529.41
3.	Gujarat Carriage of Goods Taxation Act, 1962	735,786.30
4.	Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939	117,651.75
5.	Fees and other receipts	186.25
	Total	4,256,899.36

TATE EXCISE

The main functions of the Prohibition and Excise Department are to dminister the following Acts and to organise education and propaganda r prohibition :—

(1) The Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949,
(2) The Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936,
(3) The Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930,
(4) The Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1959,
(5) The Medicinal and Toilet Preparation (Excise Duties) Act, 1955,

(6) The Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce Control) Act, 1955.

Besides, it has to collect licence fees, dues on excisable articles, medicinal, and toilet preparations. Thus, its functions relate to administration of the laws; enforcement of control under those Acts, and propaganda and education under the prohibition laws.

The department is headed by the Director of Prohibition and Excise, with headquarters at Ahmedabad. There is under him at the district level a District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise at Amreli. He works under the supervision and control of the district Collector. Under him, there are two Sub-Inspectors, one at Amreli and the other at Kodinar. In addition to the normal staffing pattern mentioned above, one Prohibition and Excise Inspector and one Prohibition Excise Sub-Inspector are posted at Kodinar Distillery of M/s. Bileshwar Khand Udyog Sahkari Mandli Ltd., Kodinar, to levy and watch excise duty.

The Gujarat Government inherited the pattern of the Prohibition and Excise Department on bifurcation. The prohibition policy and the pattern of administration remained unchanged until 1963, when the Panchayati Raj was introduced in the State. Under the Raj the work relating to prohibition propaganda along with administration of Sanskar Kendras in the areas other than the municipal areas with population over 20,000 persons has been transferred to the panchayats. In the municipal areas with population of 20,000 and above the officer of the Prohibition and Excise Department continues to attend to the prohibition propaganda work as in the past. The Social Welfare Committee of the district panchayat and the taluka panchayat and the Education Committee of the village panchayat are enjoined to attend to the work of the prohibition propaganda under the Raj.

The State Government levies duty on the following commodities under section 105 of the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 :—

(1) any alcoholic preparation for human consumption,
(2) any intoxicating drug and hemp,
(3) opium,
(4) any other excisable articles as defined in clause (13) of section 2 of the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949.

In addition to the above articles, excise duty on medicinal and toilet preparations containing alcohol, opium and narcotics is levied under the Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955 by the Central Government but collected by the Prohibition and Excise Department of the State and retained by the State Government.

Excise duty on various alcoholic preparations brought to the district a total revenue of Rs. 106,369.01 in 1967-68. However, in view of the prohibition policy of Government, excise revenue is not an important factor.

CENTRAL EXCISE

The Amreli district which consists of only one range is placed under the Superintendent of Central Excise, Junagadh with one Inspector of Central Excise stationed at Amreli.

The Central Excise Department deals with excise duties mainly levied on tobacco, sugar including Khandsari, vegetable non-essential oils, paints varnishes, cosmetics, cotton twist and yarn, cotton fabrics, Indian combustion engines, wireless receiving sets, steel furniture, etc. Such duties yielded a total annual revenue of Rs. 9,436,409 in the year 1966-67.

INCOME-TAX

This is one of the direct taxes levied and collected by the Central Government and is one of the most important taxes of Central Government At the State level, there is a Commissioner of Income-Tax. There is one Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax stationed at Bhavnagar who is in charge of the following talukas of this district, *viz.*, Amreli, Khambha, Jafrabad, Dhari, Rajula, Lathi and Lilia. The Kunkavav-Vadia and Babra talukas are under the jurisdiction of Income-tax Officer, Rajkot, while Kodinar taluka of the district is under the jurisdiction of Income-tax Officer, Junagadh. The Income-tax Officer, Rajkot is under the adminstrative control of the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Rajkot while Income-tax Officer, Junagadh is under the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Jamnagar.

The details of the number of assessees and the realisation of Income-tax in the district from the years 1960-61 to 1967-68 are given below:—

Year	Under Rs. 5,000		Over Rs. 5,000		No. of assessees (col 2+4)	Amount of tax (Rs. in thousand) (col. 3+5)
	No of assessees	Amount of tax (Rs. in thousand)	No. of assessees	Amount of tax (Rs. in thousand)		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1960-61	950	61	688	838	1,638	899
1961-62	1,092	72	718	985	1,810	1,057
1962-63	1,198	86	776	1,106	1,974	1,192
1963-64	1,285	108	850	1,127	2,135	1,235
1964-65	1,492	129	797	1,067	2,289	1,196
1965-66	1,662	145	969	1,293	2,631	1,438
1966-67	1,800	167	996	2,030	2,796	2,197
1967-68	1,895	199	1,022	1,452	2,917	1,651

The foregoing statement shows a progressive increase in the number of assessees and the amount of Income-tax realised in the district. However, between the years 1963-64 and 1964-65, the variation in the number of assessees and amount of tax collected is mainly due to non-completion of assessments of big income cases.

APPENDIX I

Original and Revision Surveys

Sl. No.	Taluka	Original Survey		Revision survey	
		No. of Villages	Year of survey	No. of Villages	Year of revision
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Amreli ..	1	1903		
		4	1905		
		23	1906		
		27	1907		
		1	1925		
		1	1927		
		1	1951		
		1	1953		
		6	1955		
		6	1956		
2.	Kunkavav-Vadia ..	1	1875		
		1	1876		
		1	1877		
		1	1879		
		1	1882		
		2	1883		
		1	1887		
		5	1896		
		1	1897		
		2	1898		
		1	1941		
		14	1950		
		18	1951		
		9	1952		
		3	1953		
		3	1954		
		4	1957		
		1	1961		
3.	Kodinar ..	3	1903		
		2	1904		
		5	1907		
		11	1908		
		18	1909		
		1	1910		
		1	1911		
		23	1913		
4.	Khambha ..	1	1889		
		1	1890		
		4	1891		
		13	1907		
		14	1908		
		2	1909		
		1	1936		
5.	Jafrabad ..	1	1875	2	1893
		1	1887	1	1894
		3	1891	1	1898
		4	1895	1	1904
		1	1943	1	1966
		22	1955	..	..
		1	1956	..	..
		4	1959	..	..

APPENDIX I—*contd.*

1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Dhari ..	1	1880		
		1	1884		
		1	1898		
		2	1906		
		21	1907		
		25	1908		
		1	1913		
		1	1950		
		2	1952		
		2	1953		
		4	1955		
		18	1956		
		4	1958		
		1	1960		
		1	1961		
7.	Babra ..	13	1952	2	1958
		26	1953		
		13	1954		
		2	1955		
		1	1956		
8.	Rajula ..	1	1895	1	1945
		2	1904		
		2	1907		
		40	1926		
		4	1927		
		1	1928		
		4	1954		
		13	1955		
		15	1956		
		6	1959		
		1	1960		
9.	Lathi-Damnagar ..	4	1875	5	1951
		1	1878	1	1956
		1	1893	1	1959
		6	1905		
		13	1906		
		1	1907		
		2	1917		
		1	1921		
		1	1951		
		1	1953		
		2	1955		
		10	1956		
10.	Liliya ..	2	1874		
		21	1875		
		3	1876		
		11	1878		

Source :

District Inspector of Land Records, Amreli.

CHAPTER XII

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

Police

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND*

When the British assumed charge of the province of Kathiawar in 1820, there was safety neither of life nor of property. The absence of any machinery left the Chiefs, both big and small, to deal with their subjects according to their whims. Crimes of most heinous nature were passed over with no severe punishment other than petty fines. It was usual to afford protection to the fugitives and criminals—a principle of high honour which was seldom or never violated. This certainty of finding protection was a powerful inducement to some of the *Girasias* or landholding classes, deprived of their land revenue rights over the villages they held, to resort to dacoity (*baharvata*) or outlawry. These dacoits (*baharvatias*) were ruthless and inhuman. Because they murdeded innocent subjects in cold blood, set villages on fire without qualms of conscience, harried cattle and maimed all they could not carry. The conditions in this region were thus unsettled and life and property insecure towards the middle of the 19th century. The advent of the British in the peninsula helped the princes establish the rule of law and bring order out of chaos by bringing the offenders to book.

THE POLICE ADMINISTRATION[1]

The Police Administration during the Baroda regime may be divided into the following stages :—

(1) Period prior to 1860,
(2) Period from 1861 to 1870,
(3) Period from 1871 to 1875, and
(4) Period from 1876 to 1947.

In the first stage, prior to 1861 the *izara* or farming system prevailed. The *izardar* exercised magisterial as well as police functions and the line of demarcation between magisterial and police duties did not exist. For each village, there were *vartanias* or *rakhas*, village watchmen, responsible both for the safety of the village and the protection of the travellers. These village watchmen acted under the orders of the Village Patels, who were in turn responsible to the *thanedars*, in charge of small group of

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* CAMPBELL J.M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, (1884), pp. 324-33.

1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), pp. 288-295.

villages. Although, the *thanedars* were Revenue Officers, they were mainly concerned with the police duty. The *thanedar's* functions were mainly of a police and magisterial in character. It was his duty to detect criminals and dispose of such cases as were within his powers, and commit others to the *vahivatdar's* court. Although the powers of the *thanedars* and the *vahivatdars* were defined by *kalambandis* and *izara pattas* (agreements or conditions of lease), in practice, these officers used greater powers in criminal cases. In deciding criminal cases, they proved these by levying fines in the shape of perquisites.

During the second period (1861-1870) the *izara* system was abolished and *huzur fauzdari* court took cognizance of all functions which were beyond the powers of the *vahivatdars*. From the *huzur fauzdari*, down to the Police Patel, all the officers were simultaneously magistrates and police officers. The detection and punishment of crime depended upon the same set of officers.

The year 1860 marked an important stage in the Police Administration of the district, with the appointment of the *fauzdar* or 4 *aval karkuns* under the *vahivatdar*. The *fauzdari aval karkun* attended to the magisterial and police work. In criminal cases preliminary work was done by him and the decision rested with the *vahivatdar*. During the 3rd period from 1871 to 1875 the classes of magistrates were formed and their powers defined according to the area of the *mahal*, the powers of a first class *vahivatdar* being Rs. 100 fine and six month's imprisonment. However, in the 4th period from 1876 onwards the whole police administration was changed under the able administration of Raja Sir T. Madhavrao in 1875. During this period magisterial and police functions were separated. A *police naeb suba* was appointed in each district (*suba*) and police inspectors were appointed for subdivisions, *fauzdars* for talukas and *naeb fauzdars* for *tappas* or *thanas*. The village police, however, remained as before. The *thanedars* were supplanted by *naeb fauzdars*. Thus, it was Sir T. Madhavrao who created regular police force on the modern lines in the Baroda State.

In 1881, the first Police Act for the Baroda State was framed defining the powers and functions of the Police Officers at different levels in the district.

In 1909, a Water Police was organised for the Kodinar and Okhamandal coasts.

In 1914-15, at the request of the Agent to the Governor in Kathiawad, the Baroda Government joined, "the Convention for securing efficient co-operation among the States of Kathiawad in the suppression of dacoities and other serious crimes-1890" on reciprocal terms.

The above historical account relates to the Amreli district of the former Baroda State. After the Baroda State's merger in the Bombay State in 1949, the police machinery was brought on a par with the Bombay system. This is continued even after its bifurcation in 1960.

In reorganisation of districts in 1959 certain areas from the districts of Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh were merged into the Amreli district. These areas formerly belonged to the princely States and estates of Kathiawad, where there was modicum of police administration according to the local needs and financial resources of the State and estates. After the formation of the Union of Saurashtra in 1948 the Saurashtra Government introduced the police administration on the lines of the former Bombay State. As a result after their merger in Amreli district in 1959, the police administration of the merged areas was adjusted in the police set-up of the former Amreli district. Since both these areas had adopted the Bombay police system no difficulty was felt in adjustment of the personnel and their powers and functions.

Gujarat State—For the purpose of administration, the Gujarat State has been divided into two Police Ranges, *viz.*, Rajkot and Baroda, each under the control of a Deputy Inspector General of Police. Amreli district has been placed under the Rajkot Range.

The District Superintendent of Police is the executive head of the police force in the district. His primary duties are to keep the force under his control properly trained, disciplined, efficient and contented, and to ensure by constant supervision that prevention, investigation and detection of crimes in the district are properly and efficiently attended to by the police force. The District Superintendent of Police is assisted by an Inspector who is termed Home Inspector of Police and works as his personal assistant. He supervises the work of the office at the headquarters during the former's absence. In Amreli district, there is an officer of the rank of Police Sub-Inspector, one each for local intelligence and crime branches. Each district is divided into a number of police stations, each in charge of a Sub-Inspector of Police who has under him police Head Constables and Constables.

The District Magistrate has control over the police force of the district. In exercising this control, he may call for from the District Superintendent of Police reports on any matter connected with crimes, habitual offenders, prevention of disorder, distribution of police force, conduct and character of any police officer subordinate to him (the District Superintendent of Police), the utilisation of auxiliary means and all other measures in furtherance of his control of the police force and maintenance

of order in the district. He decides the questions of policy and matters relating to the administration of law and order within the district but does not interfere with such matters as recruitment, internal economy and the organisation of the district force.

FUNCTIONS OF POLICE

The primary functions of the police are the prevention and detection of crimes, maintenance of law and order, apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, protecting Government treasuries and private or public property and prosecution of criminals. They have, however, certain other duties to perform such as inspection of shops selling explosives and poisonous drugs, extinguishing fires, giving aid to the displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of characters, passports and naturalisation inquiries.

There are, however, other functions devolving on the police under the Bombay Police Act, 1951, as adapted and applied to Gujarat State. These are: (a) prompt service of summons and execution of warrants, (b) obtaining information concerning the commission of cognizable offences, (c) prevention of commission of public nuisances, (d) apprehension of culprits, (e) offering assistance to the disabled or helpless persons, taking charge of intoxicated persons and of lunatics at large who appear dangerous or incapable of taking care of themselves, (f) prevention of loss or damage by fire and avoidance of any accident and danger to the public, (g) regulation and control of the traffic and maintenance of order at public places like temples, fairs, public bathing and washing places, etc., and, (h) discharge of other duties imposed upon them by any law in force for the time being.

Incidence of Crime—The following statement shows the incidence of crime committed in the district in the years 1961 and 1968. It will appear that the crime graph has risen from 1,498 in 1961 to 5,792 in 1968. Among them, the steep rise is under the crimes committed under the special and other local laws as the figure of 885 has shot upto 4,459 during the period. Offences affecting person and property also rose from 444 to 639 during the same period. It is remarkable that not a single offence (i) against the State, (ii) army and navy, (iii) coins, (iv) government stamps, (v) weights and measures, (vi) causing of miscarriage, (vii) unnatural offences, (viii) criminal misappropriation and (ix) fraudulent deeds, etc., and (x) breach of contract, was reported during the period under review.

Incidence of Crime

Sl. No.	Description of offence	No. of offence 1961	1968
1	2	3	4
1.	Against the State	..	..
2.	Relating to the Army and Navy	..	..
3.	Public tranquillity	..	37
4.	Relating to public servant	5	5
5.	Contempt of the lawful authority of public servant	..	271
6.	False evidence	..	1
7.	Relating to coins	..	..
8.	Relating to government stamps	..	..
9.	Relating to weights and measures	..	..
10.	Affecting the public health, safety, convenience, decency and morals	4	165
11.	Relating to religion	38	..
12.	Affecting life	..	46
13.	Causing of miscarriage, etc.	..	..
14.	Hurt	153	331
15.	Wrongful restraint and confinement	16	18
16.	Criminal force	24	36
17.	Kidnapping, etc.	2	3
18.	Rape	2	1
19.	Unnatural offence	..	..
20.	Theft	200	135
21.	Extortion	..	2
22.	Robbery	10	18
23.	Criminal misappropriation	..	..
24.	Breach of trust	25	18
25.	Stolen property	..	4
26.	Cheating	12	27
27.	Fraudulent deeds, etc.	..	..
28.	Mischief	26	18
29.	Criminal trespass	96	113
30.	Offences relating to documents, trade or property marks	..	3
31.	Breach of contract	..	..
32.	Offences relating to marriages	..	7
33.	Defamation	..	11
34.	Criminal intimidation, insult and annoyance	..	63
35.	Under special and other local laws	885	4,459
	Total	1,498	5,792

Source :

1. Bureau of Economics and Statistics, 1961-62, pp. 37-40, for the figures of the year 1961.
2. District and Sessions Judge, Amreli, for the statistics of 1968.

Police Divisions—The district is divided into two police subdivisions, *viz.*, Amreli and Dhari, with their headquarters respectively at Amreli and Dhari, each in charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police. He is responsible for all crime works within his subdivision and carries out the general orders of the District Superintendent of Police. He is also responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and policemen in his subdivision. He has to make detailed inspections of police stations and out-posts in his charge at regular intervals.

Each subdivision is divided into one or more circles. In this district, there are two circles—Amreli and Dhari—each under the charge of a Circle Police Inspector. They are employed for crime work and supervision of bad characters and gangs in their circles. They also supervise and co-ordinate the crime work of different police stations within their circles.

In addition to the police headquarters at Amreli, there are in all 14 police stations and 16 out-posts in the district.

The strength of police force in the district was 876 in 1968. The District Superintendent of Police, who heads the organisation, has under him two Deputy Superintendents of Police, three Police Inspectors, 25 Police Sub-Inspectors, 96 armed Head Constables, 97 unarmed Head Constables, 382 armed Constables and 270 unarmed Constables.

The district police force had also an emergency company consisting of 4 Head Constables and 20 Police Constables for special work against dacoits in the district. The entire police force in the district was literate in 1968.

The expenditure on the police and establishment in the district for the year 1968 amounted to Rs. 2,123,565. There was one policeman for 3.76 sq. kms. of area and 760 persons.

Railway Police—The control and administration of the railway police is vested in a Superintendent of Police who has a parallel organisation on the lines of the District Superintendent of Police. He functions under the supervision and control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, C.I.D., Crime and Railways, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

Anti-corruption and Prohibition—With a view to eradicating the evil of corruption and for a more effective implementation of the prohibition policy of Government, a Task Force consisting of one Police Sub-Inspector and 14 Head Constables and Constables has been created for this district from April 1, 1966 under the direct control of the District Superintendent of Police.

The district has a fleet of 9 police vehicles. Wireless organisation with adequate equipments and staff is also functioning in the district.

Welfare of Police—In 1968, the Government residential accommodation was provided to 622 policemen, 1 Police Inspector and 14 Police Sub-Inspectors. Various facilities and amenities are provided at the police headquarters at Amreli for the welfare of the policemen and their families. They include (1) mess and canteen services where cooked food and articles of daily use are served and sold, (2) children's park, (3) reading room where newspapers and periodicals are made available, (4) supply of 11 *Ambar Charkhas* to needy policemen for supplementing their incomes, (5) *Bal-wadi* for children, (6) daily conveyance facility for school-going children of the policemen and (7) similar conveyance facility for shopping, etc., on holidays.

THE KOTWAL SCHEME—The Kotwal scheme has been adopted since 1st April, 1963. A kotwal is a servant appointed at the village by the Mamlatdar for maintenance of law and order in the village. The appointment of the number of kotwals in each village is decided by the Collector of the district in accordance with the scale and rules prescribed. At present, there are 207 kotwals in the district. They get a fixed remuneration of Rs. 50 p. m. with effect from 1st March, 1970. Their appointment is for the period upto the 31st March, following the date of appointment. Though it is purely temporary, it is renewed from year to year so long as the holder of the appointment continues to be fit for the job. The service of a kotwal does not qualify him for leave, gratuity or pension. In February every year, the Talati of the village submits a report to the Mamlatdar in the prescribed form in duplicate. He sends the original direct to the Mamlatdar and forwards the duplicate to him through the Police Sub-Inspector. As a kotwal has to handle Government money, he has to furnish security of a sum of Rs. 100 in the prescribed form signed by two sureties. The Revenue Patel or the Police Patel, (if there be no Revenue Patel), is primarily responsible for the general supervision and control over the work of kotwal in his village.

VILLAGE POLICE—The control over the village police is vested in the District Magistrate who may delegate any of his powers to the District Superintendent of Police. Each village generally has a police patel, who is required to collect information regarding suspicious characters and send them to the police stations. He has to keep a strict watch over the movement of notorious characters under the surveillance of the police and give all the information he possesses about what is happening in the village, when the patrolling policemen visit the village.

Prior to the introduction of the Panchayati Raj in April, 1963, in every village there were two posts—one of a Revenue Patel and another of

a Police Patel—appointed by the Subdivisional Magistrate in accordance with the provisions of the Bombay Hereditary Offices Act, 1894. In smaller villages, the Police Patel carried out both the revenue and police functions, while in larger ones, there were separate posts of Revenue Patel and Police Patel. However, after the introduction of Panchayati Raj, the work of collection of land revenue has been transferred to the village panchayats and so the Police Patels are now entrusted with the maintenance of law and order only in the villages.

HOME GUARDS—The Home Guards organisation in this district was started in 1950. It functions under the Commandant, Home Guards, with headquarters at Amreli and has under him Unit Officers appointed by Government. Home Guards organisation is non-political and non-communal. All members on enrolment have to sign a pledge to the effect that they will well and truly serve the people without fear and affection, malice, or ill-will for the maintenance of peace and prevention of crime against person and property. The Home Guards activity is spread over twelve centres in the district. Each centre is under the charge of a Unit Officer. In 1968 there were 578 home guard cadets on the roll in the district. They are imparted training in squad drill, lathi drill, arms drill, firing, use of bayonet and physical exercises, wireless training, driving of heavy vehicles, etc. When called on duty, they enjoy the same powers and protection as those of the members of the regular police force. Their functions consist mainly of guarding public buildings, patrolling, prevention of crime and assistance to the police in their duties. They are paid duty allowance, whenever they are called on duty.

GRAM RAKSHAK DAL—Besides village police another organisation established by the Government for the protection of rural areas is the Gram Rakshak Dal. It is a body of men primarily organised for the defence of village against dacoits, other anti-social elements, protection of person and safety and security of public property in the village. During the time of emergency, Gram Rakshak Dal functions as an adjunct to and works in close co-operation with the police in maintaining internal security. Every person between the ages of 20 and 50 years residing in a village, possessing good health and character, good antecedents and civic sense, and educated upto third standard vernacular, is eligible for appointment as a member of the Gram Rakshak Dal. The District Superintendent of Police is designated the appointing authority and the training is imparted by the Police Head Constables appointed specially for the purpose. Every member of the Dal enjoys the powers, privileges and immunities of a police officer when called for duty. The members of the Dal are given training in elementary squad drill, *lathi* drill, physical exercises, use of rifle, arms drill, organising *naka bandis* in the villages, combating of dacoits and robbers and first aid to the injured. They are

also encouraged to do night-patrolling in their respective villages, both on their own as well as with the police. They are also mobilised when the village faces dangers like floods, fire, other natural calamities or attacked by dacoits, robbers, etc. In Amreli district, in 601 villages, Gram Rakshak Dals were organised and had a membership of 20,881 at the end of December, 1968. Of these, 601 were Naiks and 353 Up-Naiks. Members of the Dal are recommended for arms licences in deserving cases.

Mahila Gram Rakshak Dal—Similar organisation for women was started in the wake of Pakistani aggression in 1965. The main objective of organising a separate wing for women was to inculcate in them a spirit of defence and to induce them to take part in protecting life and property in the village. During such emergencies as flood, fire, earthquakes, etc., they are required to give first aid to the injured and prepare food for the affected. Help in saving ladies from the clutches of anti-social elements is one of the main functions of the Mahila Gram Rakshak Dal. Any woman between the ages of 18 and 50 years, possessing good health, character and educated upto fourth standard is eligible for recruitment as a member of the Mahila Gram Rakshak Dal. The District Superintendent of Police is the appointing authority. In this work, he is assisted by the Honorary Women Organisers of the district. Members are trained in elementary drill, use of rifle and cane, elementary knowledge of law, first aid to the injured, collection of intelligence about anti-social elements and saving harassed people from the clutches of such persons.

The Mahila Gram Rakshak Dal had 217 members including 6 Naiks and 6 Up-Naiks in the district at the end of 1968.

Jails

ORGANISATION—Prisons in the Gujarat State are constituted under the Prisons Act of 1894. The Inspector General of Prisons, Ahmedabad, is the head of the Jail Department and exercises, subject to the orders of the State Government, general control and superintendence over all prisons, jails and the headquarter sub-jails in the State. The Jail Department functions under the Home Department.

There is a headquarter sub-jail at Amreli, where prisoners convicted and sentenced upto six months are kept. Undertrial prisoners are also kept in this jail. The Superintendent of the jail is assisted by a junior clerk and a jail guard for the management of the jail. The duties of reserve guard are performed by the armed police for which a guard comprising two head constables and nine constables is deployed by the police authorities in the district.

There are eight judicial lock-ups at Rajula, Kodinar, Bagasara, Vadia, Dhari, Lathi and Lilia in the district. The Judicial Magistrate of the

place in which the judicial lock-up is situated works as the Superintendent of the lock-up and one clerk from his court as the jailor.

The headquarter sub-jail at Amreli has a capacity to accommodate 90 prisoners. The total number of convicts and undertrials in the jail as on 1st January, 1969, was as under :

Convicts		Undertrials		Detenues		Total	
Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
12	..	101	1	..	..	113	1

Source :

The Superintendent, Sub-Jail, Amreli.

Prison Discipline—Prison life is well organised. Prisoners behave in a disciplined manner and any breach of prison discipline is dealt with under the Prisons Act, 1894. Prisoners found guilty are awarded various types of punishments, *viz.*, (i) cut in remission, (ii) separate confinement, (iii) stoppage of canteen facilities, etc.

After Independence, the jail administration has been greatly reformed. As a result of the implementation of the recommendations of the Jail Reforms Committee of 1948, the entire outlook towards prisoners has changed. The jail has ceased to be a place of terror. Previously, the stress was laid on breaking down the personality of the prisoners by giving them inhuman task of grinding, inflicting such punishments as whipping, keeping them in iron chains, and employing them on non-productive work. Prisoners are now provided with productive work and trained in various crafts like textiles, carpentry, manufacture of chalk sticks and spinning on the *ambar-charkha* mainly with a view to enabling them to earn their livelihood after their release. With a view to keep the short-term prisoners engaged, manufacture of *pattis* for wooden cots is undertaken in this jail. The value of *pattis* amounted to Rs. 1,055.72, bringing a profit of Rs. 262.15 to the jail authorities in 1968 In short, the approach to the jail administration is one of reform in place of punishment.

Welfare of Prisoners—Though jails are considered penal institutions, the policy of Government towards prisoners is not retribution or revenge but of reformation and rehabilitation. As a result, whatever may be the cause of a prisoner's entry into jails, the jail administration provides training so as to enable him after release to settle down as honest, decent and useful citizen of the community. With this end in view various reforms have been introduced in jails. These are; (1) remission of sentence for good behaviour, (2) grant of furlough and parole, (3) earning of wages for productive work in jails, and (4) canteen facilities with permission to spend upto Rs. 10 per month from the wages earned by them in jail on items like tea, milk, cigarettes, match boxes, soap, etc., and (5) cultural activities in the form of *bhajans*, songs, sports competitions, etc.

Treatment of Prisoners—The jail at Amreli is classified as a sub-jail where short-term prisoners sentenced upto six months' imprisonment are kept. Prisoners are classified into undertrial prisoners, civil prisoners, prisoners having simple imprisonment and those undergoing rigorous imprisonment. Those convicted are given refotmatory treatment in jail during the period of their imprisonment. Prisoners detained under the Preventive Detention Act, 1950 (as amended in 1961) and the Defence of India Act, 1962 are called detenues and are governed by the Rules made under these Acts. They are classified as Class I and II detenues and in comparison with other convicts, provided with additional facilities like tables, chairs, cots, extra interviews and letter and permission even to contest elections.

Ordinarily, convicts are allowed to write one letter once a month, whereas undertrial prisoners can do so once a week at Government cost. Interviews with outside persons including relatives are allowed once a month to the convicts, while such interviews are allowed once a week in case of undertrial prisoners. Additional interviews are also granted in deserving cases.

OPEN JAIL

When we think of a jail, the picture of encircling forbidding walls with high over-powering iron gates heavily guarded by armed police conjures up before our eyes. This is because they have been places of penal servitude. The basic concept of criminology is that criminals should be isolated from the society, locked behind the prison bars, and put to physical and mental torture as a measure of deterrent punishment. Mahatma Gandhi has aptly said that "criminals should be treated as patients in hospitals and the jail should be hospitals admitting such patients for treatment and care." With the switch-over to the Welfare State, the concept of criminal justice and punishment of criminals has undergone change. The current concept is that a convict should be given proper human treatment and correction with a view to his reform and rehabilitation. A person commits an offence against person or property when he becomes a victim of circumstances of his passion or rage or madness. But he is normally not prone to crime or moral turpitude. As a measure of social reform, offenders need to be reformed and rehabilitated during the period of their imprisonment in the prison so that when they are released from jail on completion of their terms, they may be in a position to eke out their livelihood by taking agriculture or other occupations. The organisation of close-custody prison places severe limitations on treatment of prisoners and may be a great barrier to resocialisation of offenders than are the bars and walls. With this object in view, this district has been selected for this novel experiment of running an open jail at

Amreli. It is on the out-skirts of the town of Amreli within easy reach. It is significant that this jail is the first of its kind in the whole of Gujarat and one among the 14 such jails in the whole of the country.

Although, the jail at Amreli was started since January 9, 1968, the actual work commenced in March, 1968, when the first batch of 10 prisoners was transferred from the Sabarmati Central Prison, Ahmedabad. The main criterion for selecting these prisoners was that they belonged to the agricultural class. Long-termers whose sentences are more than 4 years (including life-imprisonment) and whose unexpired portion of sentence is upto 2 years are selected for this experiment. Their good conduct in jail and farm experience are preferred.

The jail has now 30 long-term prisoners. The administrative machinery consists of one Superintendent, Junior Jailor and three Guards. The jail is provided with an area of 42 acres and 36 gunthas of agricultural land. The prisoners are provided with huts deep in the field. They are not locked up at night as in closed prisons. They have common kitchen and live a community life. The daily chores starts early in the morning by prayer. At 7 A. M., they go out to fields. From 11.00 A. M. to 2.00 P. M., they take rest. Thereafter, they do farm work till 8.00 P. M.

The extensive farm area of 42 acres and 36 *gunthas* was a waste land before the prisoners took over. The four wells were in disuse and full of debris and serpents. The prisoners were thus confronted with difficulties in the initial stage, but they took up the challenge and made the land cultivable, cleared the wells and made them usable. The Agricultural Department provided improved seeds, fertilisers, and technical know-how. With these assistance 35 acres of land were put under various *kharif* crops, such as hybrid *bajri*, cotton, groundnut and vegetables which yielded a handsome income of Rs. 17,000. The *rabi* crop was taken thereafter which yielded an income of about Rs. 8,000. Thus, the total income from the produce amounted to Rs. 25,000. The agricultural produce is first consumed by the prisoners and the remainder is sent to other prisons, and if any surplus left, it is disposed of in the open market. Thus, the open jail system is intended to be self-supporting A prisoner can spend on himself two-thirds of his earnings subject to a maximum of Rs. 10 per month.

An adult education class is likely to be started with the assistance from the Social Welfare Department for benefit of these prisoners. A donation of a radio set, harmonium and a pair of *tablas* has been received for the entertainment of the prisioners. Intensive training, hard work, group living, games, recreation and prayers are the daily chores which are expected to remove fear complex and jail phobia among the prisoners.

Apart from agricultural activities, the prisoners participate in the celebrations of the national days like the Independence and Republic days and provide entertainment programmes.

In certain respects, there is no difference in the treatment given to the prisoners in open prisons and closed prisons. In the case of holidays, the rate of remissions, food, scale of clothing, writing of letters, visits from relatives and friends, the treatment given to both types of prisoners is the same. Medical care is available from the civil hospital near by the jail. For personal hygiene, 28 grams of washing soda and 14 grams of coconut oil are supplied to a prisoner per week. A canteen is provided which serves only tea and other articles are required to be purchased by prisoners from the market.

No special rules have been framed for regulating the open jails. How ever, a police guard outside the perimeter of the prison is provided.

The success of open jails can be judged from the incidence of escapes, recidivism among the released prisoners and the cost of operations. Since the open prison has been started in 1968 only, it is too early to assess its operative effects. However, it is noticed that so far, there are no incidents of escape and that the prisoners have generally maintained good behaviour.

Juveniles and Beggars

ORGANISATION—The activities for the welfare of juveniles and beggars in this district are conducted under four special Acts, *viz.*, (1) The Bombay Children Act, 1948, (2) The Saurashtra Children Act, 1956, (3) The Bombay Prevention of Begging Act, 1959 and (4) The Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938. Since the reorganisation of the district, some portions of Junagadh, Rajkot and Bhavnagar districts have been merged in the Amreli district as at present constituted. The Saurashtra Children Act, 1956, continues to be in force in the said areas. Thus, the Juveniles Court at Amreli administers both the Children Acts, *i. e.*, The Bombay Children Act, 1948 and the Saurashtra Children Act, 1956.

The controlling authority under all these laws is the Director of Social Defence, Gujarat State, with headquarters at Ahmedabad.

Remand Home, Amreli—A Remand Home was started at Amreli by the Government in 1963 to implement the provisions of the Bombay Children Act. Children detained in this institution are taken care of as regards their health and training in craft and literacy. Those, who are not repatriated to their parents or guardians, are committed by the Juveniles Court to a certified school. Sometimes some children are ordered to be retained in the Home in case there is no vacancy in the certified schools.

This Home has been recognised as a Fit Person Institution, hence the boys committed by the Juveniles Court to the certified school can be retained here pending vacancy in a certified school at Baroda, Broach or Surat or the Special School at Rajkot. Under special circumstances, a child may be committed to the Remand Home itself and may not be transferred to any institution. The girls are committed to Vikas Grih, Amreli, which is recognised as fit person institution to receive destitute and delinquent girls under the Children Acts. This institution has been staffed as under :—

(1) Superintendent and Probation Officer 1,
(2) Literacy-*cum*-Craft Teacher 1,
(3) Guards 2,
(4) Cook 1 and other staff.

Women's and Children's Institutions Licencing Act, 1956—This Act provides for the licencing of institutions catering to the needs of women and children and is enforced in the entire State of Gujarat and the Director of Social Defence is the licencing authority.

Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938—This act is in force in the district since July, 1965. Under this Act, some of the offenders are given a chance to readjust themselves to the normal life in society. A Chief Officer has been appointed to implement the Act and he conducts pre-sentence enquiries in respect of offenders and submits reports to the Court.

Judiciary

Historical Background

As stated before, the district was under the jurisdiction of the Gaekwads. The acquisition of this territory is aptly described in the Baroda State Gazetteer as under :—

"The early Maratha invaders of Gujarat sought not territory but tribute. Territory became theirs, almost against their wish, because the Moghal empire fell to pieces. The disintegration of the Musalman kingdom of Gujarat preceded as well as accompanied the Maratha conquest, and the Gaekwad and other Maratha Chiefs obtained a portion only, though a large portion, of the debris, of which great Musalman nobles, Rajputs Chieftains, and petty *girassias*, also gained or retained their shares."[1] What the state of judicial administration was under the Marathas at the beginning of the 19th century can be gathered from the

1 Desai G. H., and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), p. 243.

reports of Col. Walker, who wrote, "The administration of Justice amongst the Marathas was entirely neglected. The Government, seldom inflicted capital punishment, and this was the source of one of its greatest abuse. Almost every crime was commutable for money and fines were considered a regular branch of revenue. The only object the Maratha Government had in view in Kathiawar was collection of tribute. The power of life and death and the administration of Justice within their respective villages was possessed by all, and it was never thought necessary to make any reference to the authority of the superior Government."[1]

The administration of justice in the *mulukgiri* district of Kathiawar was one of ordeals and oaths, the point in dispute being determined by the success of one of the parties in putting the other upon trial by oath or ordeal. The practice of *dharna* was used in many places by Brahmins and Bhats to gain a point which could not be accomplished by any other means. The *modus operandi* was that at the house of the person concerned, they sat down in *dharna* with poison or dagger ready for use, threatening to commit suicide, if the party concerned remained obdurate. "Justice in Gujarat" wrote Col. Walker, "is not administered according to the written law of the several castes, but depends on the will of the persons in whose hands the local authority may be placed."[2] In the districts of Baroda State, the administration of civil and criminal justice was in the hands of the Civil Judge who was a farmer of revenue called *izardar* or *kamavisdar*.

None of the proceedings was in writing except the clerk entering in his diary the benefits accrued from the decision of any disputed point. In the criminal cases the *izardar/kamavisdar* was the Judge with limited powers and was not invested with the powers of inflicting the punishment of death. The usual punishments inflicted were fines, imprisonment or banishments and in very rare cases, capital punishment of death.

In short, the old system of administration of justice in the Baroda State was as follows. There was the *panchayat* at the base, which was the crude and ancient device of people to whom Government could not give prompt and cheap justice. There were *kamavisdars*, whose real business was to get money out of the districts they farmed, and therefore, the civil and criminal justice was a strange wearisome task to them.

From the early decades of 19th century, the British interference in the affairs of the native States increased and its impact was felt in every aspect of administration. Judicial courts were set-up gradually to look

1. CAMPBELL J. M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, (1884), pp. 325-33.
2. DESAI G. H. and CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), p. 247.

after the administration of justice. In the context of this background, the judicial set-up in the Amreli prant of former Baroda State is described below.

The talukas/mahals comprising the Amreli prant were Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar, Okha Mandal and Damnagar talukas and Khambha, Beyt, Bhimkatta and Ratanpur peta mahals.

Besides the Court of the District and Sessions Judge at Amreli, styled the "Amreli Prant Nyayadhishi," there were courts of Civil Judges, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrates, First Class, called "Mahal Nyayadhish and Sadharan Fauzdari Nayayadhishi Varga I", at Amreli, Dhari, Kodinar and Dwarka. The court at Amreli had jurisdiction over Amreli and Damnagar. The court at Dhari had jurisdiction over Dhari and Khambha. The Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate First Class, Dhari, held his court for four days in a month at Khambha for hearing civil and criminal cases.

The court at Kodinar had independent jurisdiction over the Kodinar taluka, whereas Okha Mandal court held jurisdiction over Okha Mandal taluka, Beyt and Bhimkatta Mahals. The Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate, First Class, Dwarka, held his court for three days in a month at Beyt. The Mahalkari, Bhimkatta, was invested with the powers to try Civil suits to the extent of Rs. 500/- and all criminal cases triable by a Second Class Magistrate Those triable by a First Class Magistrate were tried by the Court at Okha Mandal with headquarters at Dwarka. Similarly, the Mahalkari at Ratanpur was invested with the powers of a Second Class Magistrate in the case of criminal suits and tried civil suits upto the value of Rs. 500. Criminal cases triable by a First Class Magistrate were tried at Amreli.

The court of the District and Sessions Judge, Amreli, was empowered to hear suits of special nature and entertain appeals and revision applications—both civil and criminal. The Sessions Judge was empowered to award the sentence of death, but any sentence of death passed by him was subject to the confirmation by the *Varishtha* Court (High Court) at Baroda.

At the time of the merger in 1949, the court of Amreli Prant Nyayadhishi (District Court) was abolished and the jurisdiction was transferred to the District and Sessions Judge, Mehsana. The Court of Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate First Class, Dhari, was also abolished, but was reopened in 1951.

The District Court at Amreli also restarted functioning from 16th March, 1960. Similarly, the Court of the Civil Judge, Senior Division and Judicial Magistrate, First Class was also established at Amreli from that date. The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Amreli attends to all civil cases from Amreli and Babra talukas along with the criminal cases from Amreli.

The Baroda State was the first class State in India and had introduced a number of reforms in the State administration. Judicial reforms were also made and courts organised according to the pattern in the adjoining British districts. A High Court for the Baroda State, styled the *Varishtha Nyayadhishi* functioned at Baroda and heard appeals against the orders and decrees passed by the District Courts. There was also a *Huzur Adalat*, presided over by the Ruler, consisting of three members with powers to hear appeals against the orders of the High Court.

At the time of the reorganization in 1959 following talukas/mahals were added in Amreli district (i) Rajula, Lathi, Jafrabad and Lilia from Bhavnagar district and (ii) Bagasara, Vadia and Babra from Rajkot district, and (iii) some villages from the Junagadh district.

PRESENT SET-UP

(1) *Civil Courts*

District Judge—The set-up of the Judiciary of Amreli district after the formation of the State of Gujarat continues to be the same even after the bifurcation of the former Bombay State. The District Judge at Amreli is the highest judicial authority in the district and presides over the District Court which has its headquarters at Amreli. The District Court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district. It is also a court of appeal from all decrees and orders passed in the suits valued upto Rs. 10,000 by the subordinate courts. The provisions of Civil Manual of 1960, volume I and II, issued by the High Court of Judicature, Bombay, Appellate side, for the guidance of the Civil Courts and Officers subordinate to it were made applicable to this district with effect from 28th April, 1960. The District Judge exercises general control over all the Civil Courts and their establishments and inspects the proceedings of courts subordinate to him. He also exercises jurisdiction under the following special Acts, *viz*., the Bombay Motor Vehicles Act, 1939; Land Acquisition Act, 1894; the Public Trusts Act, 1950; the Bombay District Municipalities Act, 1901; the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925; the Bombay Rent Act, 1947 as adapted and applied to the Gujarat State, and the Indian Electricity Act, 1910; the Indian Telegraphs Act, 1885 and the Indian Railways Act, 1962.

Appointment to the post of Assistant Judge is made whenever necessary depending upon the volume of work in the District Court. The

Assistant Judge exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction. He can try original cases, the value of which does not exceed Rs. 15,000. So far as appellate jurisdiction is concerned, he is empowered to hear such appeals from the decrees and orders of the subordinate courts, which are filed in the District Court and which may be transferred to him by the District Judge. At present, the post of an Assistant Judge does not exist in the District.

Subordinate to the District Judge are courts of the Civil Judges, Senior and Junior Divisions. The jurisdiction of the latter extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the amount involved in the subject matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of the former, extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature irrespective of the amount involved in the suits.

Besides the District Court, there is the Court of the Civil Judge, Senior Division and the First Class Judicial Magistrate at Amreli. As Small Causes Judge, the Civil Judge, Senior Division and the First Class Judicial Magistrate, tries cases upto the prescribed pecuniary limits as per powers vested in him by the High Court. He also hears civil cases of Babra and presides over the Children's Court constituted under the Bombay Children Act, 1948. Other Courts in the district are those of Civil Judges, Junior Division and the First Class Judicial Magistrates located at Dhari, Kodinar, Bagasara, Lathi and Rajula. Khambha, Babra, Vadia, and Lilia talukas/mahals are served by linked courts as shown below :—

Linked Courts

1.	Khambha	The Civil Judge, Junior Division and First Class Judicial Magistrate Dhari, holds his Court at Khambha for 4 days in the alternate months, for doing criminal work.
2.	Vadia	The Civil Judge, Junior Division and First Class Judicial Magistrate Bagasara, holds his court for 3 days in a month, for doing criminal work.
3.	Lilia-Babra	The Civil Judge, Junior Division, Lathi, holds his court at Lilia for 4 days in a month. He also holds his court at Babra for 4 days in a month for the disposal of criminal cases.

(ii) *Criminal Courts*—The District Judge, Amreli, is also the Sessions Judge of the district. He tries criminal cases committed to his court by the Judicial Magistrates after preliminary inquiry and hears appeals against the decisions of the subordinate Magistrates. He is also the

Special Judge of the district and tries all cases under the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1947.

The Assistant Judge exercises the powers of Additional Sessions Judge, on the criminal side for the trial of sessions cases, criminal appeals and miscellaneous criminal revision applications transferred to him for disposal by the Sessions Judge. If the Assistant Judge is not invested with the powers of an Additional Sessions Judge, he works as an Assistant Sessions Judge only. The Sessions Judge and the Additional Sessions Judge may pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by them is subject to the confirmation by the High Court. They can also hear appeals and revision applications from the decisions of Magistrates. The Assistant Sessions Judge can impose the sentence of imprisonment upto ten years but has no power to hear appeals and criminal revision applications. At present no Assistant Judge or Additional Sessions Judge is posted in this district. The appointment of Assistant Sessions Judge or Additional Sessions Judge is made whenever necessary according to the exigencies of work in the Sessions Court.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act, 1951 and the Code of Criminal Procedure (Provisions of uniformity) classify the Magistrates into two categories, *viz.*, (1) Judicial Magistrates and (2) Executive Magistrates. All the Judicial Magistrates in the district are Magistrates of the First Class. They are subordinate to the Sessions Judge, who may, from time to time make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of business among them.

The Executive Magistrates fall under the following three categories : (1) District Magistrate, (2) Subdivisional Magistrates and (3) Taluka Magistrates. All Subdivisional Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate and the Taluka Magistrates to the Subdivisional Magistrates concerned, subject to the general supervision and control of the District Magistrate. Their powers and functions are described in the Criminal Procedure Code. Appeals from orders of Executive Magistrates requiring security for keeping peace lie to the Sessions Court. The Criminal Manual of 1960, issued by the High Court of Bombay, was made applicable to the Saurashtra area merged in the present Amreli district with effect from 5th April, 1960. In the rest of the Amreli district the Criminal Manual was in force since the merger of Baroda State into Bombay State from July, 1949.

Law Officers—The Law Officers of Government functioning in the Amreli district are : (1) the District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor and (2) the Honorary Assistant Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor.

Statistics of the Civil Court—The following statement shows the number of Civil cases classified according to : (A) the nature of suits and (B) the amounts involved in them during the year 1967:—

STATEMENT XII.1

(A) Civil Cases Classified According to the Nature of the Suits, 1967

Sl. No.	Particulars	No. of cases
1.	Number of cases pending at the end of the year 1966	363
2.	New cases instituted during the year 1967	1,173
3.	Cases relating to ·	
	(a) Money and movable property	773
	(b) Immovable property	229
	(c) Specific Relief	134
	(d) Mortgages	13
	(e) Others	24
	Total	1,173
4.	Cases revived and received otherewise	41
5.	No. of suits disposed of during the year	1,093
6.	Number of cases pending at the end of 1967	484

(B) Civil Cases Classified According to the Amount Involved, 1967

1.	Not exceeding Rs. 10/-	1
2.	Over Rs. 10/- but not exceeding Rs. 50/-	69
3.	Over Rs. 50/- but not exceeding Rs. 100/-	145
4	Over Rs. 100/- but not exceeding Rs 500/-	490
5.	Over Rs. 100/- but not exceeding Rs. 1,000/-	213
6.	Over Rs. 1,000/- but not exceeding Rs. 5,000/-	181
7.	Over Rs. 5,000/- but not exceeding Rs. 10,000/-	21
8.	Over Rs. 10,000/-	8
9.	Cases of which the monetary value could not be estimated	45

Of 1,173 cases registered in the year 1967, those relating to money and property numbered 773 or 68 per cent. Those relating to immovable property, specific relief, mortgages and others numbered 400 or 32 per cent. Of these, cases not exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value numbered 1,099, those above Rs. 5,000 but not exceeding Rs. 10,000, numbered 21, 8 suits were above the value of Rs. 10,000 whereas 45 were cases, the monetary value of which could not be estimated.

Of the 1,098 suits disposed of in the year 1967, 277 were disposed of without trial, 150 were decided ex-parte, 11 by admission of claims, 397 by compromise and 232 after full trial. No suit was disposed of by reference to arbitration. 26 suits were transferred.

To the 105 appeals (including miscellaneous appeals and appeals under the Saurashtra Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1954) pending at the end of the year 1967, 139 more appeals were added bringing the total to 244. Of these, 180 were disposed of leaving 64 pending at the end of the year 1967. Of these 180 appeals disposed of, 13 were either dismissed or not prosecuted, decrees of the lower courts confirmed in 73, modified in 22 and reversed in 45 and 27 were remanded to lower Courts.

CRIMINAL CASES

In the year 1967, in the Criminal Court, 6,150 offences were reported. The number of persons under trial was 9,320. Of the 8,460 persons, whose cases were disposed of during the year 1967, 3,018 were either discharged or acquitted, 5,333 convicted, 101 committed to the Sessions Court and 8 died or escaped. Of those convicted, 203 were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment, 4,355 fined, 108 released on admonition and 667 ordered to give security.

123 persons inclusive of those mentioned above were tried in the Sessions Court. Of these 79 were acquitted or discharged, 18 convicted, 5 awarded life imprisonment and cases of 25 persons were pending at the end of the year.

Nyaya Panchayats—Over and above the Judicial Courts constituted as above, the Panchayat Courts are also established in villages covered by Gram Panchayats to try minor cases with a view to avoiding undue hardship and expenditure to the village people. A provision for constituting the Nyaya Panchayats was made in the Saurashtra Village Panchayats Ordinance, 1949, whereunder powers to try certain civil suits and criminal complaints under the Indian Penal Code were conferred. Cases under the House Trespass and Cattle Trespass Act also come within their purview. An appeal against the decision of the Panchayat Court lies to the District Judge within 30 days of decision of the judgment by the Panchayat. Panchayats could not inflict any punishment by way of imprisonment but could only impose a fine upto Rs. 40.

The Nyaya Panchavats in the composite State of Bombay, which also included areas of Saurashtra and Kutch, were formed under the Gram Panchayats Act, 1958 and brought into operation in all the areas of the State from May 2, 1959. This Act permitted the establishment of a Nyaya

Panchayat for a group of 5 or more than 5 villages. After the enactment of the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961, Nyaya Panchayats are also established in places where there are Nagar Panchayats. The Act further provides for the creation of conciliation panch, whose primary duty is to settle disputes between parties Nyaya Panchayats take cognizance of and try suits in respect of money on account of contracts, recovery of moveable property and suits, the value of which does not exceed Rs. 250 in each case.

The Nyaya Panchayats also try certain complaints under the Indian Penal Code, 1860, the Bombay Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1948, the Bombay District Vaccination Act, 1892, the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947 and the Saurashtra Primary Education Act, 1956. The Nyaya Panchayats are empowered to impose maximum penalty in respect of offences triable by it. In the Amreli district, 87 Nyaya Panchayats have been constituted in accordance with the provisions of the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961.

BAR ASSOCIATION

With a view to promoting co-operation among the members of the Bar, a Bar Association was established in 1963. It is still not registered. It had 24 members at the end of 1967.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The District Agricultural Officer is in charge of agricultural activities in the district. Before introduction of the Panchayati Raj he was under the administrative control of the district Collector. After the introduction of the Panchayati Raj he has been placed under the District Development officer of the district panchayat, but he remains under the Department of Agriculture for technical supervision and control. In this respect he is directly responsible to the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Rajkot. He is assisted by one Assistant District Agricultural Officer for looking after different activities and office work. Besides, there is one Agricultural Officer in charge of the seed multiplication farms. He is further assisted by the Agricultural Supervisor in regard to the schemes relating to improved seeds multiplication and distribution, plant protection, compost development, coconut development and fertilizer distribution, etc.

At the taluka level in the taluka panchayat there is an Extension Officer (Agriculture) assisted by 10 village level workers under the administrative control of the Taluka Development Officer. Their main work is to propagate improved methods of agriculture among the formers. For the district, the District Agricultural Officer is responsible for carrying out agricultural extension activities through the field staff mentioned above. The *modus-operandi* adopted by the extension staff covers individual contact of cultivators, small group contact and discussions and meetings and seminars.

The District Agricultural Officer looks after the following activities :

(i) Implementation of developmental schemes under the Five Year Plans,

(ii) Organisation of crop protection services and training methods,

(iii) Supervision of agricultural activities in blocks, crop cutting experiments, and seed multiplication farms, conducting trials of improved seeds and fertilizers,

(iv) Organisation of farmers unions, crop mompetition and *Van Mahotsava*,

(v) Distribution and storage of improved seeds,

(vi) Preparation of rural and town compost,

(vii) Technical guidance to co-operative farming societies.

After introduction of the Panchayati Raj, production committees have been formed at the district, taluka and village level. The District Agricultural Officer is the Secretary of the Production Committee at the district level and Extension Officer (Agriculture) is the Secretary of the similar committee at the taluka level.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

The Directorate of Animal Husbandry deals with scientific research in the problems of breeding, feeding, management of all classes of livestock and extension of results of such work in the district. The activities, in general, cover the entire animal population and treatment and control of diseases of animals, veterinary education, artificial insemination and providing services in shape of expert advice and technical guidance to private enterprises in the field of animal husbandry. The administrative set-up at the district level consists of one District Animal Husbandry Officer assisted by one Senior Clerk and one Junior Clerk in the district office besides one Veterinary Officer, one Milk Recorder and six Stockmen.

Before introduction of the Panchayati Raj in April 1963, he was under administrative control of the district Collector and technical control of the department. After introduction of the Panchayati Raj, he is placed under the administrative control of the District Development Officer.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

The Forest Department is headed by the Chief Conservator of Forests, who is headquartered at Baroda. He is assisted by three Conservators of Forests placed in charge of forest Circles. One of such Circles is the Junagadh Circle under which falls the Bhavnagar Forest Division. Under this Division falls the Amreli district. The Bhavnagar Forest Division is in charge of the Divisional Forest Officer (a Class I Officer). The administrative set-up of the subordinate officers in the district follows the pattern in other districts. Under the Divisional Forest Officer there are two Range Forest Officers : one each at Sarasia and Dhari. The former looks after the Sarasia Forest Range with headquarters at Amreli, because the area of the Sarasia Range sprawls over the entire Amreli district. The Range Forest Officer at Dhari is on Special Duty and looks after execution of development schemes in the district. Below the Range Forest Officers, there are two Round Foresters at Sarasia and Dhari. They are charged with the task of protection and execution of works pertaining to the working plan and the plan schemes respectively. Under these Round Foresters there are two Beat Guards at Sarasia and Dhari for protection work and implementation of plan schemes.

The main functions of the Forest Department are (i) the protection, conservation and development of forests, prevention of soil erosion and increasing soil fertility; (ii) the exploitation and utilisation of the forests so as to obtain the maximum yield. This implies framing of working plans for the scientific management of forest; and (iii) the conduct of research into silviculture, utilisation and other problems affecting the regeneration and development of forests. The State Govenment has, however, laid special stress on conservation and afforestation schemes. The State is most conservative in considering proposals for deforestation of the forest area for purposes of cultivation, etc. It has undertaken further scheme for afforestation of arid and blank areas, soil conservation, rehabilitation of pasture lands, preservation of wild life, etc.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT

The Public Works Department is one of the important departments of Government as various developmental works are executed through it. Consequent upon the launching and implementation of five year development programmes, it undertakes, on behalf of Government, construction and maintenance of major irrigation works, bridges and roads inclusive of those required for the defence of the country.

The Public Works Department deals with (1) roads and buildings, (2) irrigation, (3) electricity and (4) ports. The spheres of activity of each of these branches are independent of each other. The first two branches work under a separate Superintending Engineer, while the work relating to electricity is placed under the charge of the Electrical Engineer to the Government. The ports organisation is headed by the Director of Ports, with headquarters at Ahmedabad.

Roads and Buildings—There is no separate division for Roads and Buildings in the district but it is placed under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Roads and Buildings, Bhavnagar Division, Bhavnagar, who, in turn, functions under the guidance of the Superintending Engineer, Roads and Buildings Circle, Rajkot. There is only a sub-divisional office in the district in charge of a Deputy Engineer, who works under the guidance of the Executive Engineer, Roads and Buildings Division, Bhavnagar. The sub-divisional office at Amreli looks after construction and maintenance of those roads retained by the Government as also the maintenance and repairs of Government buildings. It executes new Government works pertaining to roads and buildings as per orders of the Executive Engineer. The Superintending Engineers and the Executive Engineers belong to the Gujarat Service of Engineers, Class I and the Deputy Engineers to the Gujarat Service of Engineers, Class II. The sub-divisions are further divided into sections, each in charge of either a Junior Engineer, Supervisor or an Overseer.

With the introduction of the Panchayati Raj in Gujarat from 1st April, 1963, roads below the category of National Highways and State Highways, *i. e.*, Major District Roads, and Village Roads have been transferred to the district panchayats and are placed in charge of an Executive Engineer, Panchayat Division. At present, besides the office of the Executive Engineer, (Panchayat) at Amreli, there are four sub-divisional offices at: (1) Amreli, having jurisdiction over Amreli, Dhari and Kunkavav-Vadia talukas/mahals, (2) Lathi sub-division with headquarters at Amreli having jurisdiction over Lathi, Liliya and Babra talukas, (3) Rajula sub-division with headquarters at Rajula in charge of Rajula, Jafrabad and Khambha talukas/mahals, and (4) Kodinar sub-division with headquarters at Kodinar exercising jurisdiction over the Kodinar taluka only.

All the above four sub-divisions are under the charge of the Deputy Engineers, Class II. They look after the roads transferred to the panchayats as also minor irrigation falling under their jurisdiction.

In Amreli district, the Public Works Department maintained a total of 230 kms. of metalled roads in 1968. The roads maintained by the district panchayat totalled 1140.89 kms. of which 690.67 kms. were metalled and the rest unmetalled.

Irrigation—The Executive Engineer, Junagadh Irrigation Division, Junagadh, looks after the irrigation works in the district. He works under the Superintending Engineer, Rajkot Irrigation Circle, Rajkot. There is only one Irrigation Sub-division in the district headed by a Deputy Engineer, who has his headquarters at Amreli.

After the introduction of Panchayati Raj from April 1963, major and medium irrigation schemes are dealt with at the State level, while minor irrigation schemes have been transferred to the district panchayats. The construction and maintenance of tube-wells is also looked after by the panchayats.

In the district Shetrunji (Khodiar) and Munjiasar are important irrigation schemes implemented by the Executive Engineer, Junagadh Irrigation Division, Junagadh and seventeen other minor irrigation works executed by the Panchayat Division.

Electrical Circle—For carrying out advisory, administrative and executive duties pertaining to the generation and use of electricity in the State, there is an electrical wing in the Public Works Department headed by the Chief Electrical Engineer to the Government. There are three electrical division in the State, each under an Executive Engineer with headquarters at Ahmedabad, Baroda and Rajkot. Amreli district has been

placed under the jurisdiction of the Electrical Division, Rajkot. The Deputy Engineer, Electrical Sub-division at Junagadh who works under the control and guidance of the Executive Engineer, Electrical Division, Rajkot, arranges for the electrical installations and their maintenance in Government buildings. The inspection wing is working under the Industries, Mines and Power Department. The Assistant Electrical Inspector at Bhavnagar performs the duties under the Indian Electricity Act, 1910 and carries on inspection of medium pressure and high tension electrical installations, power-houses, mills, cinemas, etc., with the help of the staff working at Bhavnagar.

Ports—The administration of all Gujarat ports is placed under the Director of Ports with headquarters at Ahmedabad. He is under the administrative control of the Public Works Department. For the purpose of administration, all the ports in Gujarat State are divided into eight groups each headed by a Port Officer or an Assistant Port Officer with his headquarters at the most important port of the group. There is a State Port Advisory Board with representatives of Central Government, State Government, Chambers of Commerce, Sailing Vessels Associations, etc., to advise the Government on matters connected with Ports' Act and Rules, standardisation of port charges, etc. Local Port Advisory Committees representing interests like shipping, customs, import-export trade, chamber of commerce, sailing vessels, etc., are also constituted. They also advise the Port Officers/Assistant Port Officers at the respective ports on matters connected with trade and development of ports.

In this district there are four minor ports, *viz.*, Kotda, Kodinar, Jafrabad and Pipavav (Rajula). Of these, Jafrabad and Pipavav are under Mahuva group of Ports and in charge of a Deputy Engineer and Port Officer, Mahuva, with his headquarters at Mahuva. While the other two ports, *viz.*, Kotda and Kodinar are under Veraval group of Ports, and in charge of Port Officer, with his headquarters at Veraval.

Co-operation Department

The Co-operation Department is headed by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, who is headquartered at Ahmedabad. This department works under the Agriculture and Co-operation Department at the State level. Besides he functions as the Registrar General of Money-lenders, the Director of Cottage Industries and the Director of Agricultural Marketing. He is assisted by Deputy and Assistant Registrars working at the headquarters. As the Registrar General of Money-lenders, he enforces the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946, which provides for the regulation and control of the transactions of money-lenders. In his capacity as the Director of Agricultural Marketing, he enforces the Gujarat Agricultural

Produce Markets Act, 1963 and performs the functions of organisation and constitution of regulated markets, assessment of licence fees; and rates of commission and gives technical guidance as regards the manner in which the accounts of the market committees shall be maintained.

As the Director of Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives, he is assisted at the headquarters by (i) a Deputy Registrar, (ii) a Deputy Development Officer for Handicrafts, (iii) an Engineer for Cottage Industries, (iv) a Techinical Officer for Leather Industries, (v) an Assistant Director for Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries (Khadi and Village Industries) and (vi) a Textile Officer.

Before the reorganisation of the Co-operation Department in 1968, there were three Divisional Deputy Registrars with headquarters at Ahmedabad, Baroda and Rajkot and District Registrars in each of the districts in the State. Amreli district was placed under the Deputy Registrar, Rajkot Division, who had jurisdiction over Rajkot, Jamnagar, Junagadh, Bhavnagar, Amreli, Surendranagar and Kutch districts. At the district level, the District Registrars carried out the functions of all the four wings of the Co-operation Department, *viz.*, (i) co-operation, (ii) industrial co-operatives, (iii) agricultural marketing and (iv) money-lending.

With the introduction of the Panchayati Raj from April 1963, some of the powers and functions of the co-operative sector were transferred to the panchayats and the services of the District Registrars were placed at the disposal of the district panchayats, though they continued to hold the charge of subjects dealt with by Government. With effect from September 1, 1964, they were withdrawn from the district panchayats and the services of Assistant District Registrars were placed at their disposal to look after the subjects transferred to the panchayats.

With a view to achieving greater efficiency and economy in expenditure, the department was reorganised in 1968. The offices of the three Divisional Deputy Registrars with headquarters at Ahmedabad, Badroa and Rajkot were abolished and the powers exercised and duties performed by them have been readjusted between the office of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies at the State level and the Disrtict Registrars at the district level. However, the existing arrangements of deputing one Assistant District Registrar to each district panchayat continue.

According to the revised set-up, the Co-operation Department is grouped in four sections, *viz.*, (i) co-operation and marketing, (ii) industrial co-operative and cottage industries, (iii) money-lending and (iv) audit.

(f) *Co-operation and Marketing*—According to the revised set-up, a District Registrar, Class I with headquarters at Junagadh deals with Co-operation and Marketing sections and exercises jurisdiction over Junagadh and Amreli districts. He is assisted by one Office Superintendent, one Head Clerk, Accountant, one Co-operative Officer, five Assistant Co-operative Officers and other staff at the headquarters. The District Registrar also functions as the Deputy Director of Agricultural Marketing and Rural Finance. He exercises powers in respect of all types of societies including federal societies, having jurisdiction beyond the district as also in respect of subjects not transferred to the panchayats. He entertains proposals for the establishment of regulated markets and the declaration of market yards.

The District Registrar, Junagadh is assisted by an Assistant District Registrar, Class II, one Co-opeative Officer, one Head Clerk, four Assistant Co-operative Officers and other staff posted at Amreli. The Assistant District Registrar exercises all the powers of the District Registrar in respect of marketing and co-operative societies.

(i) *Assistant District Registrar (Panchayat)*—One Assistant District Registrar, Co-operative Societies deputed to the district panchayat deals with subjects transferred to the panchayats. These relate to the (i) registration of societies, (ii) maintenance of prescribed registers, (iii) powers relating to the formation, registration or continuation of societies and their membership, (iv) amendment of bye-laws, (v) change of name, (vi) disposal of surplus assets of societies in the event of their closure and (vii) holding annual, general and special meetings of societies. The societies in respect of which these powers are delegated to the panchayats are agricultural credit, multi-purpose and service co-operatives, consumers' stores, labour contract and industrial co-operatives, etc.

(ii) *Cottage Industries*—For dealing with this work, Amreli district is placed under another District Registrar, Class I, who has his headquarters at Rajkot with jurisdiction over Rajkot, Bhavnagar, Jamnagar, Junagadh, Surendranagar, Amreli and Kutch districts. His functions are: (i) organisation of industrial co-operatives, their inspection and supervision, (ii) scrutiny of loan applications of industrial co-operatives and artisans, (iii) inquiry into complaints about malpractices, (iv) guidance to industrial societies and individual artisans and (v) maintenance of close contact with the working of societies and artisans for the progress and development of cottage industries, etc. The work of industrial co-operatives and cottage industries in district is placed under the Assistant District Registrar, Co-operative Societies (Industries), who has his headquarters at Junagadh and is in charge of Junagadh, Amreli and Bhavnagar districts. Amreli district is under the charge of the Co-operative Officer (Industries), Amreli, who is assisted by the Senior Clerk, Junior Supervisor, one Industrial Supervisor and other staff.

(iii) *Money-lending*—The District Registrar of Money-lenders, Class I, with headquarters at Rajkot, exercises jurisdiction over Rajkot, Jamnagar, Junagadh, Bhavnagar, Amreli, Surendranagar and Kutch districts. An Assistant District Registrar of Money-lenders, one each, is posted at Bhavnagar and Junagadh to assist him in his work. The Assistant District Registrar of Bhavnagar exercises jurisdiction over Amreli district. At the district level, one Co-operative Officer works as Inspector of Money-lenders.

The District Registrar is responsible for the proper implementation of the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946 in the district and grants or refuses licences to money-lenders under the Act. In cases of breach of law, he is empowered to compound the offences under section 35 (c) of the Act. It is also his duty to take final decision in cases of illicit money-lending detected by the subordinate officers working under him. The Assistant District Registrar conducts inquiries into applications for licences for money-lending and forwards them with his report to the District Registrar of Money-lenders who may grant or refuse them after scrutiny on merits. The Co-operative Officers attached to him detect the cases of illicit money-lending which the Assistant District Registrar forwards to the District Registrar for final disposal.

(iv) *Audit*—Section 84 of the Gujarat Co-operative Societies Act, 1961 provides for the statutory audit of every society once a year. For the purpose of audit, Amreli district is placed under the Special Auditor, Class I, at Rajkot who holds jurisdiction over the seven districts of Saurashtra region. He is assisted by Auditor, (Grade-I) and Auditors and Sub-Auditors of lower rank working at the headquarters.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES

The main activities of the Department of Industries relate to the establishment of large and medium scale industries, assistance to small scale and cottage industries, establishment of industrial estates, store-purchase organisation, enforcement of the Weights and Measures Act, control of raw materials for industries, issue of essentiality certificate, export-promotion, etc. Thus, the activities under the department can broadly be classified into: (1) large and medium industries (2) small scale and cottage industries, (3) stores purchase, (4) raw materials and (5) weights and measures.

The department is headed by the Commissioner of Industries, who is headquartered at Ahmedabad. He works in several capacities such as the Controller of Weights and Measures, Controller of Coal and Coke and Controller of Molasses. Besides, he is instrumental in implementing the industrial policy of the State Government. He has a nucleus of four regional offices at Ahmedabad, Baroda, Surat and Rajkot which are placed under

the jurisdiction of the Deputy Directors of Industries. One Deputy Director (Metric system) of Industries attached to the office of the Industries Commissioner is in charge of the metric branch and is responsible for the smooth enforcement of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 in the State. The Deputy Director, Rajkot is also the Deputy Controller of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958. He plays an important role in the promotion and development of small scale and large scale industries and executes the industrial policy of the State Government under the directions of the Commissioner of Industries.

The Amreli district falls under the Rajkot region and is placed in charge of the Industries Officer. He is assisted by two Junior Industries Inspectors, one in charge of Amreli Division I and the other in charge of Amreli Division II.

He is charged with a number of functions which are more or less analogous to those assigned to the Deputy Director at the regional level. The most important function assigned to the Industries Officer is to look after the promotional aspect of industrial development in the district. To this end, he has to render all possible help to the parties approaching him for industrial advice regarding the industrial potentialities such as infrastructure facilities like water, power, land, communications, etc. He has to assist them in getting required raw materials, loans and machinery on hire-purchase system. Other functions besides these relate to the proper enforcement of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 and rules made thereunder. In this task, he is assisted by Industries Inspectors who are required to visit centres allotted to them. In addition to the work of weights and measures these Inspectors assist the Industries Officer in the investigation of applications for the import of scarce and controlled raw materials, power subsidy, registration of small scale industries, telephone priority, collection of industrial statistics and information relating to industrial activities in the district. After investigation, the Inspectors submit their reports to the Industries Officer who, after ascertaining their genuineness, forwards them to the Deputy Director, Rajkot with his recommendations. The Deputy Director thereafter issues necessary permits or essentiality certificates on merit. Similar procedure is followed in respect of applications for loans under the State Aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries Rules, 1935 or under the schemes operated by the State Bank of India or Gujarat State Financial Corporation or for the hire-purchase of machinery.

Further, the Industries Officer is empowered to register small industries and grant power subsidy to the registered units. In the district, 16 units of small scale industries are registered under the provisions of the Gujarat State Subsidy to Electric Power Consumption (Cottage and Small Scale) Rules, 1965.

Power Subsidy to Small Scale Industries—With a view to encouraging cottage and small scale industries and to increasing their production through the use of electric power, a subsidy scheme for electricity consumed by cottage and small scale industries is implemented by the Commissioner of Industries. Under this scheme all small scale industries except flour mills, (excluding roller flour mills), rice and pulse mills, photographic units, ice factories, ice cream, ice candy and ice fruits industry (excluding cold storage), laundries, units engaged in the repacking of medical and toilet goods, oil expellers and tailoring units, having a connected load not exceeding 30 horsepower are eligible for subsidy. The quantum of subsidy admissible under the scheme is the amount being the difference between the actual rate paid per unit consumed and (i) 3 paise per unit subject to maximum of 12 paise per unit, and shall be payable for a period of ten years, from the date of its registration under the Rules, if the industry is situated in an area with a population upto 20,000 or (ii) 6 paise per unit subject to a maximum of 9 paise per unit and shall be payable for a period of seven years from the date of its registration under the Rules, if the industry is situated in an area with a population between 20,000 and 1,00,000 or (iii) 9 paise per unit subject to a maximum of 6 paise per unit and shall be payable for a period of five years from the date of its registration under the Rules, if the industry is situated in an area with a population of one lakh and above. However, subsidy is not payable on the consumption of electric power exceeding 2,000 KWh in any month, in respect of small scale industrial units and 2,500 kWh in any month in respect of industrial co-operatives. Units desiring to avail of the subsidy are required to get themselves registered with the Industries Officer of the district concerned.

The total amount disbursed as power subsidy amounted to Rs. 7,868 during the year 1967-68. Under the rehabilitation scheme, the Industries Officer grants loans to goldsmiths as well as to Burmese and Portuguese repatriates to the extent of Rs. 2,000 per applicant.

Electricity Duty—Under the Bombay Electricity Duty (Gujarat) Rules, 1968, any industrial undertaking desiring to get exemption from payment of electricity duty may make an application in form 'E' to the Collector of Electricity Duty, Ahmedabad, within 90 days from the date of starting generation of energy or from the date of the commencement of these Rules whichever is later. In the case of new industrial undertaking, such application may be made within 90 days from the date such industrial undertaking commences for the first time manufacture or production of goods, or from the date of commencement of these Rules, whichever is later.

Any consumer making an application after the expiry of the period of 90 days shall not be entitled to exemption from payment of duty for the

period lapsed between the date of application and date of manufacture of production of goods or generation of energy, as the case may be and the total period of exemption shall be reduced to that extent..

Procedure for claiming benefit of lower rate of Electricity Duty—Any industrial undertaking desiring to get the benefit of the lower rate of electricity duty may make an application to the Collector of Electricity Duty. This application will be accompanied by a certificate from the Commissioner of Industries, Gujarat State and a declaation in Form 'G' to the effect that the investment in the form of machinery and equipment of such undertaking does not exceed the value of Rs. 7.50 lakhs.

With a view to ensuring speedy industrialisation in the State, Government has appointed Assistant Directors of Industries (Development) for the regions who aid and advise the existing and prospective industrialists. One Assistant Director of Industries (Development) is appointed for the Bhavnagar region which comprises Bhavnagar, Junagadh, Surendranagar and Amreli districts. His headquarters are at Bhavnagar.

The Amreli district is industrially backward and only the oil mills industry has developed. A few small units have been established. With a view to quickening the tempo of development of industries in the district and to achieve more effective co-ordination in providing infra-structure facilities to industries, the Collector of the district has been designated as *ex-officio* Deputy Commissioner of Industries since October, 1967. The functions and powers assigned to him are :

(i) allotment of factory sheds and plots in the Government industrial estates,

(ii) holding of seminars connected with industries,

(iii) formation of District Master Plans and publishing them.

(iv) co-ordination of activities of various heads of offices/departments with regard to infra-structure facilities,

(v) correspondence with all authorities in or outside the State directly with regard to the difficulties of industries in the district,

(vi) supervision over the information centres functioning in the district.

Thus, at the district level, there is one Industries Officer assisted by two Industries Inspectors. Over them, immediately there is the district Collector who has to co-ordinate the industrial activities in the district. At the regional level, there is one Assistant Director (Development) headquartered at Bhavnagar and the Deputy Director at Rajkot for enforcement of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act.

Office of the District Information Officer

The important function of Government in a democracy is to keep the people informed of the work of Government in various spheres of development and administration in order to enable them to take advantage of the welfare schemes of Government. For this purpose, Government has appointed a Director of Information at the State level and one District Information Officer at the district level. The District Information Officer is in charge of all work relating to information, publicity, and public relations in the district.

The office of the District Information Officer discharges the two-way function of keeping the people informed of the work of the Government and of keeping the Government informed of the public opinion and the needs and grievances of the people. The District Information Officer acts as a liasion officer between the Government offices of various departments and the press. He collects and makes available information regarding the various developmental activities carried out by Government in the district and the State. Through the different media of mass communications like press notes, films, distribution of literature, exhibitions, cultural programmes and talks, the officer keeps the people informed about the activities of the Government. This is achieved by issuing press notes, organising film shows, *harikathas*, dramas, exhibitions, tours of journalists, distribution of literature like hand-outs, posters, booklets, leaflets, etc., bearing on the Five Year Plans and other Government publication and topics of public interest. As and when required, he holds press conferences on behalf of other departments of the Government to provide an opportunity to the press, to get first hand knowledge of the subject to be covered. Besides, he helps tourists and others visiting the district and feeds them with necessary information. He keeps the authorities at the district level and Government departments at the State level through the Director of Information, well-posted with the important events by periodical reports. He issues regular press notes and handouts giving factual information about important schemes and activities of Government and contradicts in consultation with the department concerned incorrect newspaper reports.

As in every other district, a mobile publicity van is placed at his disposal. The van is equipped with 16 mm. film projector, generator and record player for field publicity. It is taken round the district and film shows and instructive and entertaining talks are arranged on various development programmes such as agriculture, animal husbandry, health, prohibition, untouchability, small savings, education, defence and other plan scheme. He thereby keeps the rural folk informed of the concessions and facilities offered to them by the State and Central Governments. The films produced by the Directorate include both the documentaries and newsreels.

Government offices and other institutions having their own projectors are given film reels on loan.

. The Information Centre is attached to the office of the District Information Officer which imparts useful information pertaining to development programmes to the people at large. The centre maintains a library and a reading room which provides newspapers, periodicals relating to developmental and cultural matters. It serves as a useful form of information for the town of Amreli in particular and the district in general.

Rural Broadcasting—To provide information with entertainment to the rural population, the Directorate of Information has undertaken a scheme of rural broadcasting which envisages the installation of radio-receiving sets on a contributory basis. The village joining the scheme has to pay an 'installation contribution' amounting to Rs. 175, if the set is operated by a battery and Rs. 150 if it is operated by electricity plus an annual maintenance contribution of Rs. 60. As these sets are installed by Government, their ownership vests in Government. The Government of India supplies the sets to the State Government on the basis of 50 per cent cost or Rs. 125 whichever is less. These radio sets are mostly installed in gram panchayat offices or public places in villages. Till the end of December, 1968, the State Government had installed 219 sets in the villages of this district. One Supervisor is stationed at Amreli for maintenance and repairs of the sets.

Office of the District Statistical Officer

The Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Ahmedabad is the apex office concerned with the collection and compilation of statistical data so very essential for planning and development programmes of the State. At the district level, there is a District Statistical Officer who is responsible for collection and compilation of the basic statistics. Some of the important activites carried out by him are publication of District Statistical Abstracts, collection of price data, progress of community development programme and plan statistics and conduct of socio-economic surveys. Before introduction of the Panchayati Raj in April, 1963, he was under the administrative control of the district Collector. But after introduction of the Raj, he is placed under the District Development Officer at the district panchayat level.

PART VI—WELFARE DEPARTMENTS

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

INTRODUCTION

Local self-government flourished in cities in ancient India but not in the sense in which it is understood to-day. It was first introduced in the town of Madras in the days of the East India Company. In 1687, the Court of Directors ordered that, a Corporation composed of British and Indian members should be formed for the purpose of local taxation, as funds were needed for carrying on administration. It was felt that it would be easier to collect taxes, if the Indians were associated in their levy. This is, because, no system of local self-government can be a success unless it is provided with adequate finance. Local self-government as a conscious process of administrative devolution and political education dates from the financial reforms of Lord Mayo's Government. In his famous resolution of 1870, the need for financial decentralisation was felt as an aid to economy and efficiency of administration. As a result, Government of India transferred to provincial Governments certain departments of administration of which education, medical services and roads deserved special mention. The provincial Governments were given a grant smaller than the actual expenditure on the departments, and were required to meet the balance by local taxation. The second stage in the history of local self-government was reached, when the famous resolution of 1882 was issued by Lord Mayo. It was the first real step in the experiment in grafting upon the paternal system of Indian administration, the democratic form of local self-government. The experiment was made with the expectation of better services and greater amenities of life, and local bodies were called upon to serve as primary schools of democracy.

MUNICIPALITIES

(1) *Early History (period from 1877 to 1949)*—The history of the municipal administration of the Amreli district needs to be traced to the former Baroda region. In the Baroda State, the need of municipal administration for providing civil amenities such as senitation, lighting of streets and water supply were felt as far back as 1830. To meet these requirements, the Baroda City Municipality was established. There were, however, no district municipalities till 1877, when a few municipalities in the talukas and towns came to be established. They were entirely managed by the Vahivatdars of talukas. Neither any house-tax was levied nor any general assessment of property was made. The entire expenditure was met by the Government. In Amreli a municipality was established in 1877. At that time, munici-

palities were established also at Damnagar, Dhari and Kodinar in the Amreli Prant. The municipalities, which were not considered sufficiently advanced were classed 'A' and were managed by the Vahivatdars of the talukas. In the 'B' class were placed municipalities which were to be managed by the members themselves. The Amreli Municipality was classed as 'B' municipality in 1904-5 and was raised to 'A' class in 1931. The members of municipalities were both officials and non-officials. The number of members varied with the size of each town. The Suba served as the President of the Amreli municipality.

These municipalities were governed by the Baroda Municipal Act, 1905 framed on the basis of the Bombay Municipal Act, 1901. It was brought into force from 1st February, 1906. It is pertinent to note that the work of the municipalities commenced on the same date as that of the local boards.

The municipal funds were raised by levy of house tax, octroi and conservancy tax. After the enactment of the Municipal Act of 1905, the Government was for withdrawal of grants to municipalities and to force municipalities to become self-supporting by levy of house tax, octroi and other duties under the law.

The municipal administration in the Amreli district may be divided into following three broad periods:—

(1) period from 1877 to 1949 under the Baroda regime,
(2) period from 1949 to 1959 under the Bombay and Saurashtra regimes, and
(3) period from May 1960 onwards under the Gujarat State.

The description of first period is given previously while the description of the remaining periods now follows.

(2) *Period from 1949-1959 under the Bombay and Saurashtra regimes*—The Amreli district was merged in the former Bombay State in 1949 and as a result the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901 was applied to this district.

This situation continued till the reorganisation of the district in 1959 when some areas from the districts of Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh were merged in the Amreli district. These transferred territories were under the Saurashtra regime and were governed by the laws of that State.

Lilia and Rajula areas originally belonged to the Bhavnagar State, where the Bhavnagar Municipal Act was applicable. The Chief Executive

Engineer acted as President of the municipalities at these two places. By and large the municipalities functioned as one of the Department of Bhavnagar State. After the merger of the Bhavnagar State into the Saurashtra union, the municipal administration of Rajula and Lilia came to be governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901, adapted by the Saurashtra Government. Municipalities also existed at Lathi and Jafrabad during the time of princely States. There were no municipalities in the territories transferred from Rajkot and Junagadh districts.

(3) *Period from 1960 onwards under the Gujarat State*—With the formation of separate State of Gujarat in 1960, the re-organised Amreli district continued to be under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901, till 1st January, 1965, when the Gujarat Municipal Act, 1963 was applied to the district.

Prior to the implementation of the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961, there were 12 municipalities in the district, *viz.*, Amreli, Babra, Bagasara, Chital, Dhari, Dungar, Jafrabad, Kodinar, Lathi, Lilia, Rajula and Vadia. The Democratic Decentralisation Committee appointed by the State Government recommended formation of gram panchayats at places having population of 10,000 and below, and nagar panchayats at places having population between 10,000 to 30,000. These and other recommendations were accepted by Government and on their basis the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961 was enacted. As a result the 12 municipalities underwent structural transformation. Four of them were converted into nagar panchayats and seven into gram panchayats. As Amreli had a population over 30,000 no change was made in its structure and it was confirmed as a municipality. Municipalities in Gujarat are now being governed by the Gujarat Municipalities Act, 1963, with effect from 1st January, 1965. The Act provides for elected councillors and reservation of seats for women, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Every municipality is vested with functions relating to the provisions of water supply, drainage, lighting, disposal of night soil and rubbish, medical aid, care of the sick particularly at the time of outbreak of epidemics, extinguishment of fires, protection of life and property of the people and registration of vital statistics.

The Act empowers a municipality to levy taxes on buildings, lands, vehicles, water supply and drainage, lighting, etc., octroi on animals or goods, sanitary cess and a special cess on education.

AMRELI MUNICIPALITY

As stated before, the present area within municipal limits admeasures 5 kms. According to the Census of 1961 it has a population of 32,400 persons. Out of 25 elected members, two seats are reserved for women and two for Scheduled Castes.

The municipality discharges its functions through the following committees :

(1) Executive Committee,
(2) Public Works Committee,
(3) Education Committee,
(4) Light Committee,
(5) Accounts Committee,
(6) Legal Committee,
(7) Garden Committee,
(8) Sanitary and Health Committee,
(9) Compost Committee,
(10) Municipal Staff Selection Committee,
(11) Water Works Committee and
(12) Customs Committee.

The Chief Officer is the executive head of the municipality.

Income and expenditure—During the year 1966-67, the total income of the municipality (excluding of the opening balance of Rs. 291,737.99) was 969,939.46 and the total expenditure Rs. 843,255.00 as seen from the sub-joined statement.

STATEMENT XIV.1

Income and Expenditure of Amreli Municipality for the Year 1966-67

Sl. No.	Income	Rs.	Percentage	Sl. No.	Expenditure	Rs.	Percentage
1.	Rates and taxes	625,273.82	64.46	1.	General administration and collection charges.	88,773.00	10.53
2.	Realisation under Special Act*	5,403.68	0.55	2	Public safety	55,060.00	6.52
3.	Revenue derived from municipal property	37,403.94	3.88	3.	Public health and convenience	463,049.00	54.92
4	Grants and contributions for general and special purposes	196,945.93	20.30	4.	Public instruction	210,486.00	24.96
5.	Miscellaneous	104,912.09	10.81	5.	Miscellaneous	25,887.00	3.07
6.	Total income excluding the opening balance	969,939.46	100.00	6.	Total	843,255.00	100.00
7.	Incidence of taxation per head of population	29.93		7.	Expenditure per head of population	26.02	

Sources:

The Chief Officer, Amreli Municipality, Amreli.

*Any other Act, excepting the Bombay Municipalities Act, 1901. such as Shops and Establishments Act, and the Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

Water Supply—The municipality has made an arrangement for the piped water supply for the town. As the Amreli town experienced considerable scarcity in respect of water supply, the former Baroda State had granted Rs. 10.15 lakhs for construction of water works, and an overhead reservoir with a capacity of 30,000 gallons was constructed. This scheme had to be carried over due to merger of the former Baroda State with Bombay State in 1949. The scheme was then divided into three parts, viz., part I, part II-A and part II-B. At the end of Second Five Year Plan-parts I and II-A of the scheme were completed and execution of part II-B was undertaken in November, 1963. At the end of Third Five Year Plan major portion of the work had been completed.[1] In 1967-68, provision was made for 1500 hydrants. In addition to this, 52 stand-posts were provided.

Roads—The total length of roads under the municipal jurisdiction is 51.068 kms., of which asphalted roads claim 18.871 kms., cement concrete roads 7.976 kms., metalled roads 6.488 kms., and unmetalled roads 17.733 kms. Besides, three traffic islands and squares have been constructed in the town.

Conservancy and Drainage—The municipality employs 64 sweepers, who clean about 51 kms., of surface roads daily. About 7 tonnes of refuse is collected in 52 dustbins in the town and is deposited in the depot every day by means of a motor truck. The refuse is used for preparing compost manure. Annual expenditure incurred on collection and removal of refuse was Rs. 15,597.00 in 1966-67.

The municipality has constructed *pukka* urinals at different places in the town. No underground drainage is constructed by the municipality. However, open drainage system exists in the town. A scheme with an estimated cost of Rs. 3 lakhs for the utilisation of sullage water for the purpose of agriculture is under consideration. For the purpose of collecting night-soil, the municipality has equipped itself with two motor trucks and one tanker.

Public Safety—The municipality maintains a fire-brigade to extinguish fire. One tractor with a tanker having a capacity of 400 gallons is equipped with one driver and a cleaner.

Street-lighting—The work of street-lighting is carried out under a contract with the Gujarat Electricity Board. There are 706 lamps and 143 tube lights. The annual expenditure on street-lighting in 1966-67 was Rs. 61,893.

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1. For details refer to Chapter XV—Medical and Public Health Services.

Gardens—Four gardens are maintained by the municipality, *viz*., (1) Mahatma Gandhi Bag, (2) Jesingpara Bag, (3) Hirak Bag, (4) Garden near Nagnath temple. The Hirak Bag is meant for females and children only. Radio-sets have been installed in all the gardens. A swimming pool called 'Rajratna Mohanlal Odhavji Swimming Pool' exists at Mahatma Gandhi Bag.

Markets—The municipality maintains one meat market constructed during the time of the Baroda regime. It was constructed at a total cost of Rs. 6,096 and has at present six shops. The rent realised from the market was Rs. 162 in 1966-67. Besides this municipal market, there is one private market also.

Education—The primary education is not the responsibility of the municipality but of the district panchayat. It, however, runs two kinder-garten schools and a girls high school. Though no library is maintained by the municipality, financial assistance is rendered to four town libraries, *viz*., the Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, the Mahila Pustakalaya, the Bal Pustakalaya and the Jeshingpara Pustakalaya.

Housing—Two blocks have been constructed by the municipality with the help of Government at a total cost of Rs. 28,000 and one block on its own at a cost of Rs. 14,000. Each block provides accommodation to 8 sweepers' families.

Town Planning—Before the merger of the Baroda State in Bombay in 1949, the town planning scheme was in operation in the Amreli district which formed part of former Baroda State. The Baroda State had prepared town extension schemes for the systematic development and expansion of its various towns. The town extension schemes in the Amreli Prant of the former Baroda State envisaged formation of residential plots, lay-out of new roads, reservation of lands for community purpose.

As the preparation of the Master Plans was not obligatory on the part of local authority, the town planning schemes in the district did not show any significant progress during the First Five Year Plan. It was, therefore, felt that unless it is made obligatory on the part of a local authority to prepare a Master Plan of the area within its jurisdiction within a prescribed time and unless suitable legal provision is made for its enforcement, the local authority will not undertake the work of preparation of Master Plan and its implementation. In order to remedy this situation the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954 was enacted which repealed the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915. The new Act came into force from 1st April, 1957. Under this Act it is made obligatory on the part of every local authority to prepare a development plan of the area within its jurisdiction within 4

years from 1st April, 1957. In Saurashtra region, the Saurashtra Town Planning Act, 1955 was in operation. No such Act was enacted for the Kutch region. When a separate State of Gujarat was formed in 1960, the State Government felt the need of a uniform legislation for all the three constituent units of Gujarat. To this end, the Bombay Act of 1954 was amended by the Bombay Town Planning (Gujarat Extension and Amendment) Act, 1967 which extended the town planning provisions of the Bombay Act to the Saurashtra and Kutch regions, repealing the Saurashtra Act of 1955.

The Town Planning and Valuation Department in the Gujarat State performs manifold activities in the sphere of both town planning and valuation of lands and buildings and provides consultancy services to the Government. Since most of the local authorities have no technical staff of their own, it has been decided by the Department to prepare development plans on behalf of local authorities.

Development Plan of Amreli Town

The development plan of Amreli town was prepared by the Town Planning and Valuation Department of the State on behalf of the municipality. In the plan, thirty-three sites are proposed to be reserved for various public purposes. The approximate cost of the plan is estimated to be Rs. 272,150. The plan was submitted to Government on 28th September, 1965 for final sanction.

Panchayats

Former Bombay State Area

From time immemorial, the village panchayat has served as a basic unit of local self-government in India. The village and its communal organisation has sustained the Indian culture during political upheavals. The village leaders managed their affairs, collected taxes, distributed lands for cultivation and assisted village handicrafts. Thus, the village leaders served as a focal point of local administration during the Hindu, Muslim and Maratha regimes. The ruling dynasty had no direct contact with the local administration. With the introduction of the British Rule, the land system changed. The British appointed village accountants and collected land revenue directly from the cultivators. Under this system, the village leaders lost their importance and the village panchayats their significance as unit of local administration. This system came to be called Ryotwari. Thus, the Ryotwari system tended to disintegrate the ancient panchayat system in the villages.

But the panchayats survived in the Baroda State, because special care was taken by the ruler of the Baroda State on the advice of Mr. Elliot, the Settlement Commissioner in 1893.

The next forward move was made in 1901, when the Ruler of Baroda State decided to introduce the elective system into the village panchayats and confer on them wider powers. New rules were, therefore, passed in 1902 for the organisation of gram or village panchayats. By 1904 panchayats were formed throughout the four districts of the former Baroda State. In the Amreli district, there were 212 panchayats. In this way, the old system of village self-government was to some extent perpetuated and continued till 1920 when the new Village Panchayat Act, 1920 was passed in the Baroda State. Important functions in connection with sanitation, water supply and drainage, supervision over public charities and trial of civil and criminal cases within certain specified limits were given to the panchayats. After the merger of the Baroda State in the State of Bombay in 1949, the Government of Bombay took active steps in establishing the panchayats in the Amreli district.

Taluka and District Local Boards—After laying the foundations of the village panchayats on a sound basis, the ruler of Baroda turned to the establishment of the taluka and district local boards. The failure of rains and consequent scarcity forced the pace of their establishment. To achieve this objective, *the Sthanik Panchayat Sabandhi Nibandh*, was passed in 1904. The Act provided for the creation of a Taluka Board for each taluka and a District Board for each district. These bodies consisted of elected and nominated members. The Taluka and District Boards were made responsible for construction of roads, tanks, wells and water works, management of *dharmashalas*, dispensaries and markets, supervision of vaccination, sanitation, primary education and arboriculture, the undertaking of relief measures on a small scale in times of famines, and generally such other public duties within their respective jurisdictions as were to be entrusted to them. The Taluka Boards were subsequently dissolved but the District Local Board was continued.

After the Amreli district formed part of Bombay State, the District Local Board continued to exist. It looked after the problems of general utility and activities pertaining to the rural areas of the district such as medical and veterinary services, village roads, village water supply, etc. The Board was given a grant equal to 15 per cent of the ordinary land revenue including the non-agricultural assessment realised during the preceeding year in the district excluding the areas under the jurisdiction of village panchayats and municipalities. The Board was empowered to levy local fund cess on land revenue at the rate of 3 annas in a rupee and also a water cess at similar rate. In addition, substantial assistance was provided by the Government towards developmental activities such as provision of medical and educational facilities, maintenance of roads and minor irrigation works.

The Board managed 14 dispensaries and 7 *dharmashalas*. The total income and expenditure of the Board in 1960-61 was Rs. 18,00,392 and Rs. 16,02,833 respectively. The main sources of income were local rates, civil works and income from medical institutions while the major heads of expenditure were civil and public works, medical services and education.

The Former Saurashtra Area

On reorganisation of the districts in 1959, certain areas of Rajkot, Bhavnagar and Junagadh districts were merged in the Amreli district. Panchayats did not exist in the areas of Rajkot and Junagadh, but panchayats existed in the Bhavnagar areas.

The village panchayats were formed in the former Bhavnagar State under the State Council Resolution No. 226 dated 4th October, 1929, for enabling people to manage their own affairs and to enlist their participation in community works. In order to manage the village improvement fund, and relieve farmers from debt the Village Panchayats Code was promulgated in 1929. Although it prescribed a general pattern of constitution, the villages could adapt it to meet local conditions and needs with the approval of the Darbar. These provisions and subsequent orders were consolidated and a new Act called the Bhavnagar State Village Panchayats Act was enacted in 1943. It provided for establishment of a panchayat on a voluntary basis. The panchayat consisted of not less than 10 and not more than 11 members including revenue and police patels. Out of these, at least 4 members were to be literate and 80 per cent of the members were to be agriculturists. The panchayat was responsible for recovery of revenue dues. The panchayats, *inter alia*, were empowered to expel from village any riff-raft likely to endanger peace and prosperity of the village with the approval of the Darbar.

Saurashtra Gram Panchayats Ordinance, 1949—After the formation of the State of Saurashtra, in their first policy announcement the Government declared their intention of establishing gram panchayats in villages. With this object in view, the Saurashtra Gram Panchyats Ordinance was promulgated in 1949. It was a special enactment framed in order to promote participation of the people in village administration.

According to the Ordinance, a panchayat could be established in a village, having a population of over 2,000 and below 10,000. The panchayat was an autonomous body elected from the gram sabha of all adult residents of the village. A full-fledged panchayat functioned not only as an administrative and civil body of the village but also as the revenue collecting agency on behalf of the Government and a local judiciary for petty criminal offences and civil wrongs.

On the basis of their efficiency and functions, the village panchayats were classified into 'A', 'B' and 'C' categories. The 'C' class panchayats had comprehensive administrative powers and duties connected with village life. The 'B' class panchayats had additional powers and duties for the collection of land revenue, wider powers to try some cases under the Indian Penal Code, the Cattle Trespass Act and the Vaccination Act. The 'A' class panchayats in addition were empowered to try suits for money due on personal loans and contracts not affecting any interest in immovable property when the loan amount did not exceed Rs. 100.

The main source of revenue for the panchayats was the land revenue grant from the Government. Prior to 1st April, 1956, 'A', 'B', and 'C' class panchayats got respectively an annual grant of 30 per cent, 25 per cent and 12½ per cent of the land revenue collected in the villages. From 1st April, 1956, this was raised to 33 per cent, 30 per cent and 25 per cent respectively for the 'A', 'B' and 'C' class panchayats. They levied octroi or house tax.

After the reorganisation of States in 1956, the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958 was passed to provide a unified law in place of various laws obtaining in constituent units of the State. This Act became operative from 1st June, 1959. Under the Act, panchayats were divided into two classes 'A' and 'B' and the scale of grant-in-aid was also revised and fixed at 30 and 25 per cent respectively.

The Saurashtra Gram Panchayat Madhyastha Mandal—By an amendment in 1950, a statutory body called the Saurashtra Gram Panchayat Madhyastha Mandal, was established for encouraging the formation of panchayats and guiding the development of the panchayat institutions. This Mandal was composed of the Minister for local self-government, the Chief Secretary, the Secretary, Revenue Department, the Chief Panchayat Officer and five other members, one M. L. A. nominated from each district subsequently, the Collectors of all the districts and seven other members nominated by the Government from the Union of Saurashtra were added to the Mandal or Board. The Board was thus, composed of 21 members and presided over by the Minister for local self-government.

District Panchayat Board—The District Panchayat Board was established more or less on the basis of the District Local Board under the Saurashtra District Panchayat Act, 1956. It consisted of ten members including the Secretary of the Central Board, Collector of the district, two members nominated by the Central Board from among the assembly members of the district, three members of the village panchayats and two members nominated from those who took interest in the panchayat work. The District Panchayat Officer appointed by

the Central Board was also a member of the District Board. The term of members was for two years. The district Collector was the President of the Board and the District Panchayat Officer its Secretary. The Board was established with a view to enable the rural population to take active interest in the administration of their day to day affairs as well as for taking speedy measures for tackling local problems like public health, primary education, medical care, water-supply, etc. Its functions were divided into obligatory and discretionary. The obligatory functions included the construction and repair of roads, markets, *dharmashalas* and other public buildings, public tanks, wells and vaccination. The discretionary functions were very wide and included a number of activities under agriculture, animal husbandry, education and village industries.

Democratic Decentralisation—The First Five Year Plan stressed the role of local bodies in the implementation of development programmes and indicated that the general policy of Government should be to encourage them in assuming responsibility for as large a portion of administrative and social services within their areas to the extent possible. As these local bodies depended mostly upon Government grants which were subjected to various conditions and restrictions, their activities were too limited to produce any noticeable impact in rural areas, and the real object underlying the formation of local self-governing institution was frustrated.

The proposals of the Planning Commission for the Second Five Year Plan, as accepted by the Parliament, stressed "the need for creating within the district a well organised democratic structure of administration in which the village panchayat will be organically linked with popular organisations at a higher level. In such a structure, the functions of the popular body would include the entire general administration and development of the area, other than such functions as law and order, administation of justice and certain functions pertaining to the revenue administration. With this background before it, the Balvantray Mehta Committee which was appointed to go into the question of the working of Community Projects and National Extension Service, held that community development could not progress without responsibility and power which would be possible only under a process of democratic decentralisation from a village to the district level. They further held that community development could be real only when the community realises its responsibilities, exercises its necessary powers through its chosen representatives and maintains continuous interest in local administration. With this object in view, they recommended an early establishment of statutory elective local bodies which alone could lead to effective rural development. They also recommended that necessary resources, powers and authority should be vested in such bodies. In effect, the Balvantray Mehta Committee recommended that if the experiment of democratic decentralisation were to yield maxi-

mum results, it was necessary that all the three tiers of the scheme, *viz.*, Village Panchayat, Panchayat Samiti and Jilla Parishad should be started at the same time and operated simultaneously in the whole district. In May 1958, the National Development Council accepted the recommendation of the Committee with regard to "democratic decentralisation" and resolved that State Government should accelerate the process for the establishment of democratic institutions functioning either at the village level or at the block or taluka level or district level. The process of democratisation should be completed as speedily as possible. As agreed in the meeting of the Standing Committee of the National Development Council in January 1958, the pattern of democratisation would be worked out by the State Governments in the light of their own conditions and requirements. As a consequence, Government of Gujarat appointed a committee in July 1960 under the chairmanship of the Revenue Minister to study this question and to make recommendations for its implementation. The committee submitted its report on 31st December, 1960. These recommendations were incorporated in the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961 which provided for a three tier system, *viz.*, the gram/nagar panchayats which were already in existence at the lowest level, taluka panchayats at the taluka level and district panchayats at the district level. This democratic decentralisation came to be subsequently called the Panchayati Raj.

The Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961—The Panchayati Raj was ushered in the districts of Gujarat on April 1, 1963 when taluka and district panchayats providing the middle tier of the democratic decentralisation scheme were formally inaugurated. The introduction of the scheme which vests the elected bodies at all levels with wide powers and provides them with necessary funds and trained administrative personnel was completed with the formation of the State Panchayat Council on May 1, 1963.

Gram Sabha—All adult persons whose names are included in the list of voters maintained for a gram are deemed to constitute gram sabha of the gram. A gram sabha has to hold at least two meetings, every year provided that the Sarpanch may, at his option and shall, if required by taluka panchayat or district panchayat call a meeting of the gram sabha. It considers annual statement of accounts, administration report, development and other programme of works and the audit notes and replies thereto and any other matter which the taluka panchayat and district panchayat requires to be placed before meeting of the gram sabha.

The gram sabha is required to carry out such other functions as provided in the Gujarat Gram Panchayats (Gram Sabha Meetings and Functions) Rules, 1964.

Gram Panchayat/Nagar Panchayat—A gram panchayat is constituted for a local area the population of which is less than 10,000 and a nagar

panchayat is constituted for a local area the population of which normally exceeds 10,000 but does not exceed 20,000. Such a local area may be a revenue village, or a group of revenue villages or hamlets forming part of a revenue village or such other administrative unit or part thereof. The number of members of a gram panchayat varies from 9 to 15 and that of a nagar panchayat varies from 15 to 31. Every gram panchayat elects a Sarpanch and Up-Sarpanch from amongst its members and a nagar panchayat elects a Chairman and Vice-Chairman from its own members. Provisions are made for reservation of 2 seats for women and one seat for the Scheduled Tribes in every gram and nagar panchayat. In addition to allotment of one reserved seat for Scheduled Castes, more seats are allotted on the basis of their population in the gram/nagar. Provision is also made for the reservation of the members of the Scheduled Tribes on population basis.

Duties of a gram/nagar panchayat are specified in the Act. If funds permit the gram/nagar panchayat may at its discretion take up certain other activities such education, medical relief, promotion of social, economic and cultural well-being of the inhabitants of its area and arranging public receptions, ceremonies or entertainments within its jurisdiction.

Taluka Panchayat—The taluka panchayat has as its members Sarpanchas of all gram panchayats/Chairmen of all nagar panchayats within the taluka as *ex-officio* members and about one-tenth of the members are elected by Chairmen of co-operative societies within the taluka. It co-opts as members, two women interested in welfare activities pertaining to women and children, two representatives of Scheduled Castes, two of Scheduled Tribes if the population of Scheduled Tribes is more than 5 per cent of the total population of the taluka and two social workers residing in the taluka having practical experience in respect of matters pertaining to rural development. Local members of the Legislative Assembly, Mamlatdar or Mahalkari of the taluka or mahal, Presidents of municipalities in the taluka and elected members of the district panchayat ordinarily residing in the taluka are its associate members.

Functions of the taluka panchayat as scheduled in the Act range from subjects relating to sanitation, health, education, culture, social education, community development, agriculture, irrigation, animal husbandry, village and small scale industries, co-operation, women's welfare, social welfare, rural housing, pastures and relief against natural calamities. As in the case of gram/nagar panchayats a number of discretionery functions have been vested in taluka panchayats also.

District Panchayat—The district panchayat consists of (a) *ex-officio* members (Presidents of all taluka panchayats in the district) and (b) elected members. The later include (i) one member elected by each constituent

taluka panchayat and (ii) those elected directly. The nature of direct election to the district panchayat is as follows :

For the purpose of election of members to a district panchayat the State Government shall divide each district into as many single-member territorial constituencies as there are seats determined and delimit their extent. Two of the seats intended for directly elected members are reserved for women, one or more seats for Scheduled Castes and one or more seats for Scheduled Tribes, according to population, if it is not less than five per cent. There will be two co-opted members having experience of matters pertaining to education and residing in the district. Associate members will include (1) Local Members of Parliament, (2) Members of Legislative Assembly, (3) the District Collector and (4) Presidents of all municipalities in the district. The President and Vice-President of the district panchayat are elected by the members from amongst themselves. Thus, the Collector is made an associate member without a right to vote.

District Panchayat is vested with administrative and executive powers. It is responsible for various developmental activities in the district, such as establishing and maintaining dispensaries, public health centres and allied institutions. It has been entrusted with a wide range of educational activities. It manages primary education and uses the agency of taluka panchayats to supervise it It co-ordinates and integrates community development schemes and looks after the development of irrigation, agriculture, animal husbandry, public health and medical relief, social welfare, cottage and small scale industries, collection and maintenance of statistics, etc. All these functions have been transferred on an agency basis to the district panchayat. A large number of executive functions such as registration of co-operative societies, approval of amendment to their bye-laws, calling of or extending the period for the calling of annual general meeting of co-operative societies and such other functions as under the Co-operative Societies Act were exercised by the Registrar, Co-operative Societies, have also been transferred to district panchayat.

Administrative Machinery—In order to carry out various duties and functions entrusted to the district and taluka panchayats under the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961 and other Acts, a hierarchy of administrative machinery has been devised and experienced personnel transferred to man it. The District Development Officer is the chief executive officer for the district panchayat and so is the Taluka Development Officer at the taluka level. In order to enable them to discharge their executive functions efficiently, these officers are given certain powers which are laid down in sections 123 and 143 of the Gujarat Panchayats Act, 1961. With the transfer of many of the departmental schemes and activities, a large number of district level functionaries have also been transferred to the district

panchayat. These are : Executive Engineer; District Health Officer; Deputy Collector (Revenue); District Village Panchayat Officer, District Agricultural Officer; District Animal Husbandry Officer; District Statistical Officer; Assistant District Registrar, Co-operative Societies, District Backward Class Welfare Officer, Administrative Officer, Education; and Accounts Officer.

At the taluka level, the Taluka Development Officer is assisted by extension officers in various fields, *viz.*, agriculture, co-operation, industries, social education, etc. At the village level there is a Talati-*cum*-Secretary who looks after the collection of land revenue and maintenance of records of the gram panchayats.

Progress in the Establishment of Panchayats—At the time of the merger of the former Baroda State, there were 168 panchayats in the Amreli Prant. Out of these village panchayats there were two group panchayats in the Khambha mahal which were presided over by the Mahalkari, Khambha. In the remaining villages the Patels of the villages presided over the village panchayats according to the Baroda State Gram Panchayat Rules.

The merger gave impetus to the growth of panchayats which increased to 229 in 1956-57. The movement gathered momentum and by 1962-63 the number rose to 522 By the end of the year 1966-67 the number of the gram panchayats rose to 528, that of nagar panchayats to 4 and the taluka panchayats to 10.

Cultural and Social Activities of the Panchayats—A number of social and cultural activities such as libraries, Bal Mandirs, Balwadis, etc., are conducted by panchayats. In 1967-68, 238 panchayats maintained reading rooms and libraries and 31 panchayats provided Bal Mandirs and playgrounds.

Sources of Income—The panchayats have been given necessary funds to execute all schemes transferred to them. The Act also provides for the levy of taxes and fees by the various tiers of panchayats. The gram and nagar panchayats are empowered to levy tax on buildings, octroi, fairs and entertainment, shops and hotels, cycle and animal drawn vehicles, general water cess, and sanitary cess, etc. Similarly, the taluka panchayats can levy education cess and taxes to the extent of 15 per cent of the taxes levied by the gram and nagar panchayats. It may levy 15 per cent surcharge on the stamp duty by a resolution and with the approval of Government on the sales, mortgages or leases executed within their jurisdiction. The district panchayat may levy taxes or fees on all or any of the items included in the schedule for the gram and nagar panchayats but the same should not exceed 10 per cent of the tax levied or leviable by the latter. It may also

as in the case of taluka panchayat, request Government by a resolution to levy a surcharge of 10 per cent on the stamp duty.

In addition to grants for schemes transferred to the panchayats, the most important source of panchayat income is the share from the land revenue payable to them. It is determined by the Government on an average of land revenue collected or recovered in the village during the preceeding 3 years. 25 per cent of this amount is reserved for expenditure on pay and training, etc., of panchayat secretaries and 5 per cent for State Equalisation Fund. Of the balance, a sum of 50 per cent is paid to village panchayats 25 per cent to taluka panchayats, 10 per cent to district panchayat, 7½ per cent to District Equalisation Fund and 7½ per cent to District Gram Encouragement Fund. The Act empowers the State Government to levy cess on land revenue for the panchayats and hand over the collection to the district panchayats after deducting collection charges. At the rate of 50 paise per rupee of land revenue, this amount came to Rs. 881,765 in the year 1966-67 in the district.

Under the Act, the panchayats are empowered to collect land revenue from the villages under their jurisdiction. Even during the scarcity years of 1966-67 and 1967-68, the gram panchayats were able to collect 90 per cent of land revenue.

Income and Expenditure of Gram, Taluka and District Panchayats—Out of 532 gram panchayats in this district, a tax on buildings and lands is levied by 180 gram panchayats and the remaining gram panchayats contemplate levy of this tax in very near future.

Statement XIV.2 goes to show that the total income of gram panchayats, taluka panchayats and district panchayat in 1966-67 was Rs. 3,509,629, Rs. 9,389,438 and Rs. 3,461,410 respectively. In the year 1966-67 the income per head was Rs. 6.01 for gram panchayats, Rs. 14.05 in the case of taluka panchayats and Rs. 5.1 for the district panchayat. The panchayats in the district have started to augment their own resources by levy of taxes, fees and land revenue cess.

From the statement, it will appear that Government grants are given to all the three tiers of the Panchayati Raj. The village panchayats, taluka panchayats and district panchayat get their shares in fixed percentages from the land revenue collected. Among these, the largest amount obviously goes to the village panchayats. But the maximum grant of Rs. 76.37 lakhs is given to the taluka panchayats. The reason is that certain schemes of Government are transferred with funds to the taluka panchayats for execution. However, there are several distinguishing features. To start with, in the case of gram panchayats gifts and donations amount to Rs. 9.71

lakhs. It is significant to note that neither taluka panchayats nor the district panchayat gets any gift or donation from the public. The gram panchayat gets such large amounts as donation presumably to commemorate the memory of some family members, by construction of a school, library or waterworks at the village. Secondly, it is only the gram panchayats which are found to levy taxes, fees, etc. Broadly speaking, the Panchayati Raj bodies are run practically from Government grants and revenues. Apparently, there is no tax effort on the part of the taluka panchayats or district panchayat.

STATEMENT XIV.2

Income of Gram Panchayats, Taluka Panchayats and District Panchayat, 1966-67

Gram Panchayats	Rs.	Taluka Panchayats	Rs.	District Panchayat	Rs.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Government Grants, Land Revenue	12,721,38	Government Grants	76,36,976	Government Grants	18,75,003
2. Gifts and Donations	9,71,415	Statutory Grants as Land Revenue Grants	7,60,624	Statutory Grants (Education and Medical)	5,00.953
3. Taxes, Fees, etc.	12,66,832	From District Panchayat's own Fund	9,91,838	Land Revenue	2,03,689
				Local Fund Cess	8,81,765
Total	35,09,629	Total	93,89,438	Total	34,61,410

Source :

The District Development Officer, District Panchayat, Amreli.

Statement XIV.3 shows items on which expenditure is incurred by Gram Panchayats, Taluka Panchayats and District Panchayat.

STATEMENT XIV.3

Expenditure of Gram Panchayats, Taluka Panchayats and District Panchayat, 1966-67

Gram Panchayats	Rs.	Percentage	Taluka Panchayats	Rs.	Percentage	District Panchayat	Rs.	Percentage
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Sanitation and Health ..	6,79,509	18 81	Sanitation and Health	7,01,101	8.75	Sanitation and Health ..	1,73,900	5.29
2. Public Works ..	10,09,455	27.95	Public Works	2,02,033	2.52	Public Works ..	20,60,199	62.70
3. Education and Culture	6,16,693	17 07	Education and Culture	43,76,587	54 60	Education and Culture ..	2,61,772	7.97
4. Administration .	7,76,770	21.50	Administration ..	8,41,485	10 50	Administration ..	2,18,766	6.66
5. Welfare of People .	63,292	1.75	Welfare of People ..	9,63,623	12 02	Welfare of People ..	1,45,140	4.42
6. Agriculture, Preservation of Forests and Animal Husbandry ..	1,28,371	3 56	Agriculture, Preservation of Forests and Animal Husbandry .	9,27,163	11.56	Agriculture, Preservation of Forests and Animal Husbandry ..	3,03,475	9.23
7. Village and Cottage Industries ..	183	0 00	Village and Cottage Industries .	4,173	0 05	Village and Cottage Industries ..	37,789	1.15
8. Collection of Land Revenue and Maintenance of Land Records ..	3,08,694	8.55	Collection of Land Revenue and Maintenance of Land Records	..	..	Collection of Land Revenue and Maintenance of Land Records ..	84,757	2.58
9. Village Defence, etc. ..	29,216	0 81		..	.	..	..	..
Total ..	36,12,183	100.00	Total ..	80,16,165	100 00	Total ..	32,85,798	100.00

Source :
The District Development Officer, District Panchayat, Amreli.

The expenditure pattern varies with the level of Panchayati Raj and the development programme. The gram panchayats spend the largest amount (28 per cent) on public works, followed by 21.50 per cent on administration, 18.81 per cent on sanitation and health, and 17.07 per cent on education and culture. For collection of land revenue and maintenance of records, they spend about 9 per cent. For welfare of the people and agriculture, preservation of forests and animal husbandry, a little over 5 per cent is spent.

In the case of taluka panchayats, the maximum expenditure (54.60 per cent) is spent on education and culture followed by 24 per cent on welfare of the people, agriculture, preservation of forests, and animal husbandry. On administration, they spend 10.50 per cent. In comparison to the gram panchayats, they spend the least on public works, sanitation and health.

In the case of district panchayat, the bulk of expenditure (62.70 per cent) is incurred on public works, presumably transferred by the State Government for execution. About 14 per cent of the amount is spent on welfare of people, agriculture, preservation of forests and animal husbandry. On the administration, it spends only 6.60 per cent.

Progress of Panchayati Raj—The foregoing account of the three tier system of Panchayati Raj introduced in the district on 1st April, 1963 at the village, taluka and district levels shows that the administration of panchayats has been well organised. Excepting a few panchayats the remaining ones have successfully discharged their responsibilities in respect of schemes relating to development of agriculture, welfare works, etc. The Chalala Gram Panchayat has shown splendid performance. In 1961-62, it was adjudged as the best panchayat in Rajkot Division. The panchayats have also not lagged behind in performing their regulatory functions in the sphere of collection of land revenue. Till 15th April, 1968, 90 per cent of the amount of total current demand was recovered by the panchayats in the district.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Ancient Education

Evidence about the early educational system prevalent in this region is available from the copper plate grants of the Maitraka period which go to establish that Valabhi had once been a celebrated seat of learning. Buddhist, Hindu and Jain institutions were patronised alike by the Maitraka rulers without any distinction.

The Hindu System—Though not a single copper plate grant in favour of any Hindu institution is so far available, there is ample evidence, to show that Valabhi, the capital of a Hindu Kingdom, was also an important seat of Hindu learning. A number of copper plates giving grants of villages, lands, etc., to learned Brahmins goes to show the great esteem in which the *pundits* well-versed in the *shastras* were held by Maitraka rulers. Its great reputation as the seat of Hindu learning attracted a Brahmin youth from Antarvedi on the banks of the Ganges to Valabhi for higher studies even though Banaras and Taxsila were close to his home.[1] Mayurasarman, the founder of the Kodamba dynasty, went, all the way to Valabhi and brought with him some of the learned Brahmins presumably to assist him at a sacrifice.[2] Under the Hindu system of education, primary education was probably in the hands of the village schoolmasters who taught in the *pathshala*, whereas higher studies were imparted at the *gurukuls*.

The course of instruction given in these primary schools consisted of reading, writing and arithmetic. Along with these subjects the students were also taught the *niti-shastras* (moral precepts) with fables - the most important of which was probably the Panchatantra. Before joining these village schools the "*Vidyarambha Samskara*" or as described by some authorities the "*Aksara Svikaranam Samskara*" was performed. As at present, under the system of education in those days also the teachers taught the letters of the alphabet in association with a word beginning with the letter.

After finishing the course of study in these schools, students were sent to the *gurukuls*, where the foundations were laid of their further careers.

1. SOMADEVA, *Katha Saritsagara*, Taranga, 32.
2. SALETORE B. A., *An Ancient Karnataka*, 1, pp. 324-325, note 1.

The study of the *vedas* was considered most important in ancient India, and particular care was taken for pronouncing correctly every syllable and accent. The preceptors repeated their instructions until they were satisfied that the students had fully grasped the subject taught.

The Buddhist System—Valabhi was much celebrated as a seat of learning, and vied with the sister university of Nalanda in promoting Buddhist studies It is pleasant to record that the institution of the Buddhists were accorded the same patronage by the Maitraka Kings, the rulers of Valabhi, as the institutions of other religions, and among the extant grants of these rulers of a good number are those issued to the Buddhist *Vihars*. According to Huen Tsiang, the first Chinese traveller to visit Valabhi, "It had about 100 Buddhist monasteries with 6,000 Brethern adherents of the Hinayana Sammatiya School."[1]

It would appear from I-Tsing's account that like Nalanda and Valabhi were the two universities which students in I-Tsing's time generally attended to acquire the stamp of culture and refinement, after finishing the usual secondary education.

Opportunities to attend the university were available only to those who had received their primary and secondary education at these centres, and to such of the outsiders as were successful in the test held before the entrance. This test was very difficult, and it was taken by a *dwara-pundita* (the keeper of the gates) who guarded the way to the higher university studies The candidates were required to prove their skill in refuting doctrines, possible and impossible. Sanskrit was the medium of instruction in higher studies, high standard was demanded of students in Sanskrit, be they Hindu or Buddhist. Presumably the *Vrtti Sutra* was also one of the subjects included in the matriculation curricula, proficiency in which opened the gates to the university. The other subjects taught in the secondary stage were *Shilpavidya* (art), *Abhidharmakosa* (metaphysics), *Chikitsavidya* (diagnosis), *Hetuvidya* (logic), and probably arithmetic.

At university level the study of these various subjects was continued. The students learnt "composition in prose and verse" and devoted themselves to logic (*hetuvidya*), and metaphysics (*abhidharmakosa*).

The method of teaching at Nalanda and Valabhi was tutorial as well as professorial. The former seems to have been used at the primary and secondary stages, while in the university the professorial system largely

1. DR KRISHNAKUMARI J. VIRJI, *Ancient History of Saurashtra*, (1955), p. 187.

prevailed. It is only under the tutorial system that a personal contact between the teacher and the taught could have been maintained. In fact, the preceptors were so particular about the studies of their pupils that no one was ever given a new lesson unless the old one was thoroughly mastered, and as there were no examinations at fixed intervals for a 'mass promotion' of students to a new class, the system could work well. It enabled the more intelligent to finish their studies earlier, while in the case of others, the teachers would go on repeating their instructions until they were satisfied about the perfect mastery of the subjects taught.

But it was the professorial system that seems to have been specially suited to the conditions of the Buddhist universities. Like the professors in our universities of the present day, the teachers at these Buddhist centres lectured to large groups. The teachers took care to maintain personal contact with their disciples who were encouraged to approach them and have their difficulties solved. This personal contact was also promoted by the discussions that were held in the seminars, which must have benefited the students who took leading part in the debates as well as those that merely listened to them.

The main feature of the training, both at the university and the lower levels were the importance given to memory work. This memory work was made easy by the use of rhyme, even works like dictionaries and elementary grammar, were generally composed in verse.

Unlike *ashram* system where one gets knowledge of specialised subject Buddhist *vihar* offered number of subjects for learning. A student for instance, who having completed the courses available at a particular *ashram*, wished to pursue a new subject, usually had to go to another *ashram* for this purpose. With the establishment of the *viharas* this difficulty was solved, and courses in the known sciences were imparted at one and the same centre.

The Buddhist *viharas* were built on the principle of the monastic brotherhood where the students lived a peaceful intellectual life. Each of these monasteries (*viharas*) was like a separate college under an abbot where compulsory training was given both for spiritual practice, higher literature, and other sciences of the age. The courses must have taken at least a period of ten years of a student life

Another interesting feature of the *viharas* was that the libraries were housed in buildings specially built for that purpose.

The student life in these *vihars* was simple and systematic, we may say almost sublime. The students were subject to the same rules and

regulations as were the priests, their preceptors, so long as they lived within the four walls of the *viharas*-rules which were calculated to induce in the regularity and simple habits. Uniformity prevailed in the matter of dress, and no distinction existed between the poor and the rich in this regard.

All the same, the rules of discipline were strictly observed at these Buddhist seats of learning. Finally, the students closed their scholastic career with a public examination at which they were required to defend some thesis.

The Jain System—Valabhi is the traditional home of Jainism. Right from the beginning of the Maitraka rule, their capital city had become the scene of a great scriptural activity. Naturally, it came to be a rendezvous of the Jain *savants*. One of these was Dhaneshvarasuri, the author of the famous *Satrunjaya—Mahatmya*, who describes himself in this work as a tutor of king Siladitya.

Education among the Jains was dispensed by two different agencies, the art-schools and the monasteries. The former were the regularly organised institutions where education was imparted to all irrespective of caste, creed or sex unlike the Brahmanical schools. The instruction given in the art-schools was religious as well as secular and was calculated to fit the needs of the students in different walks of life, and to turn them into better citizens. The schools were probably run with the help of State subsidies, which were thus one of their chief financial resources.

The students assisted their teachers with their household work while they remained under them and paid an honorarium to them on completion of their studies. According to the Rayapaseniyasutta these teachers fell into three categories, the *kalayaria* or teachers of arts such as writing, *sipayariya* or teachers of handicrafts such as poetry, and so forth, and the *dhammayaria* or teachers of divinity.

The art-schools were generally patronised at the primary and secondary stages, before the children entered the Brahmanical or the monastic schools. Starting at the age of seven they continued here for about another seven years. The subjects taught during this period were of fundamental importance; and fell into four groups, *viz*., the three R's, fine arts, military training and academic and scientific studies. The study of the three 'R's was meant to equip the child with the rudiments of knowledge; the fine arts comprised singing, painting, music, dancing, drawing and cognate subjects. Military training was given together with the allied courses of

hunting, riding and archery; while the academic and scientific branches of study were so planned as to afford the students both intellectual pleasure and economic gain, including as they did the study of vernacular languages, composition, ballad-making, public speaking, and a knowledge of the *vedas*, the *vedangas*, astronomy, astrology, medicine and mineralogy. Thus, the courses in these schools were well adapted to the physical, mental and emotional needs of the scholars from their boyhood to early adolescene.

The curricula were wide in scope. For, they included instructions in religion, literature, arts, physical culture and other like subjects, and thus met the needs, of all types of students in the different grades of life. The religious instructions included the Hindu, the Buddhist and the Jain courses of studies. Out of these subjects the Brahmanical works together with the arts-course were taken up in the first group; the second group included the whole range of Buddhist studies; while in the third and final group knowledge of the important works of the Jains like Angas was imparted to the students. All these subjects possibly made up the course for graduation, while the post-graduate course included a study of subjects like the *vedas*, *vedangas*, history, philosophy, higher mathematics, grammar, prosody, astronomy, literature, lexicography, poetics, together with sacred texts of the Brahmins.

During the first half period of his study, which took up twelve precious years of his life, he was disciplined in what was termed *grahana-siksa*, or memorising the *sutras* without attempting to understand their meaning.

On the completion of studies, academic honours in different grades such as diplomas of *Pundit* and *Bahusruta* and the Doctorate were conferred on the successful candidates according to merit. No mention of the Master's Degree given to Buddhist students is made in Jain literature.

The method of study pursued in the Jain monasteries was both comprehensive and rational. The method of teaching was based on sound educational psychology. Education was never forced upon an unwilling mind. The classes were held from sunrise to sunset with a recess for lunch only. Instructions were imparted to the students either in groups or individually, according to the nature of the subject. For example, military training and other cognate arts were taught in groups as at present for economising time both of the teacher and the taught. No new subject was begun unless the one in hand had been thoroughly mastered.

Thus the students passed about seven years of their life in the art-schools where they lived a decent, happy and vigorous life.

After finishing their studies in the art-schools the students joined the monasteries, which were the prototype of the Buddhist *viharas*.

Jain students wishing to be trained according to the Jain ritual resided in the monasteries in the company of their teachers. Life in these monasteries was simple. The earliest age at which students could join a monastery was probably seven or eight years after taking the *diksha*.

As in the art-schools, no fees were charged for the instruction imparted in the monasteries. In cases of necessity even, lay scholars were provided with free boarding. Relations between the teacher and the taught were cordial.

Though in the study of scriptures the Jain monks and nuns had for the most part, common ground to cover, there was no room for co-education in the Jain system.

It is an established fact that in ancient India education was imparted only in Sanskrit and Prakrit. The Jains were the first to make use of vernacular languages as media for instruction.

The examination invariably took the form of a debate in which the knowledge of the student was tested. Those students who came out successful from these contests were awarded titles, conveying an idea of the extent of their learning. Finally, Jain literature bears ample testimony to the fact that scholarship in ancient India received due encouragement from the State.

MEDIAEVAL AND BEGINNING OF WESTERN EDUCATION

Since the early Maratha rulers regarded Gujarat as mere payers of tribute, no thought was given to education of the people. Before 1870, primary education was imparted by private teachers. These schools were called *Pandyajini Nishalo*, which taught reading, writing and arithmetic (3 R's) in a very vague manner. There was no Education Department in existence

In the year 1875, at State level a number of educational institutions were established. There were 9 Sanskrit schools, 3 Marathi schools, 3 Gujarati schools and 1 Urdu school. For higher education, only one High School was established at Baroda. In this year, the Vernacular Education Department under an officer known as the Vidyadhikari, was formed. Thereafter, at the district level, a number of schools were established. Then the schools existed only in towns or larger villages The small villages were not provided with Government schools, they had indigenous schools of doubtful capacity maintained by private individuals for their own profit. After assump-

tion of power by Sayaji Rao Gaekwad III, in 1891, the educational activities gathered momentum under his inspiration. The village Panchayats were re-organised, and as a part of their duties, it was decided that they should make themselves responsible for the village schools. In ancient India, the *guru* (teacher) was one of the village servants, and responsible to the village authority for his services. The Baroda State following this tradition in 1891 ordered that the school master should become one of the village servants and that schools be provided in all villages which could produce 16 children willing to attend. Accordingly, about twenty new schools were established in each taluka of the State. The school master was paid from Rs. 3 to 5 per month from the Revenue Department, which looked after the village services. He was, however, permitted to receive fees either in cash or kind from the grateful parents. For maintenance of schools, the Education Department used to provide grants according to the results of the examinations. Subsequently the indigenous private schools were brought under control of the Education Department. These schools were generally one-teacher schools. With the extension of the local self-Government in 1905, the control of the village schools was handed over to the Local Boards. But owing to Boards failure to manage the schools, the control was handed back to the Education Department.

Compulsory Education—Long before free and compulsory education was thought of in other parts of India, Maharaja Sayaji Rao III of Baroda introduced it into his State On the occasion, in a speech delivered, he said : "I have no hesitation in saying that we cannot do better than educate all our subjects. This is absolutely necessary for the realisation of my ambitions and wishes for the future of my people."[1] So after long deliberation in 1892, it was ordered that compulsory education should be experimentally introduced in the town of Amreli and in nine villages of the Amreli taluka. The compulsory standards were then the first three. All boys between the ages of 7 and 12 and all girls between 7 and 10 living within a mile of the school were compelled to attend the school. Children who were required to stay at home owing to (a) advanced age or infirmity of their parents, (b) physical or mental disability, etc. were exempted. The machinery for enforcement of the Act, was with the Revenue Department. List of children covered by the law were drawn up in each village by the Patel and school master every year. Appeals against the inclusion of particular names lay to the Vahivatdar in the taluka. The Vahivatdar inflicted penalty under the law. In 1914 the powers of inflicting penalty were withdrawn from the Vahivatdar and entrusted to the Village Board and the Municipality. The intention was to operate the provision of the law through the local autho-

1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), p. 311.

rities rather than through the Revenue Department. In order to induce Patels and Talatis to take interest in implementing the law, 5 per cent of the fines recovered were made payable to them as rewards for detection and punishment of offenders. The balance of the fines recovered was spent on the construction of school buildings and providing clothes and other assistance to poor children. From the fines, no financial benefit was expected to be derived by the State. Originally, 15 days' absence in a month was permitted. An exemption was, however, provided in favour of agricultural population whose children could absent themselves from school during the peak agricultural season provided that the total absence from school did not exceed 45 days in any one quarter.

In 1913, the age of compulsory attendance was raised to 14 for boys and 12 for girls and the compulsory standard was raised to fifth for both.

In 1916, a Committee inquired into working of the Act. It found that the muster-rolls of attendance maintained in the schools did not present a true picture of actual achievement and that there was considerable stagnation in lower classes.

In 1906, a village school master was satisfied with monthly salary of Rs. 10 or less and with the outbreak of World War I (1914), the standard of life rose and the need arose to pay higher salary to teachers. This presented a serious financial problem for the State. Despite this the State found the necessary funds for enforcement of the scheme, as it was considered very essential for promoting education. It came in force in November, 1893. Fifteen years' experience in Amreli taluka proved that compulsory education was both desirable and possible and then subsequently in 1906, Compulsory Education Act was made effective throughout the State.

Compulsory standards were raised from first three to five for both. The difficulty in the way of forcing people to obey was due to light punishment. The Act had no terrors sufficient to compel the guardian particularly agriculturists, who did not mind one or two annas by way of fine for non-attendance of his child at school as the same child earned six to eight annas a day in the field. Whatever difficulties were there in implementation were due to the poverty of parents.

To overcome this difficulty, the Government had introduced special course consisting of elements of agriculture with compulsory general subjects. Similar course for schools was introduced in which some practical craft instruction was imparted side by side with ordinary school work.[1] The Compulsory Education Act remained in force till 1948. There

1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), pp 308-314

after the Bombay State Compulsory Education Act was applied to this district. The age group covered by the Act is 7-11.

During the period 1931 to 1947, the progress in the field of primary education deserves a note of appreciation. In the year 1931, the number of primary schools was 126 and pupils 14,354. On the eve of Independence in the year 1947, there were 172 primary schools with 21,978 pupils.

The beginning of the secondary education in the former Baroda State can be traced to the year 1871, when the first high school was established at Baroda. The head master of the high school was also the superintendent of the schools. In 1875, a few schools were opened at different places of the State. In Amreli district, the first Anglo-Vernacular school was started in 1879; and was converted into a High School in 1899. Two more Anglo-Vernacular schools at Kodinar and Amreli were opened on 1st August, 1901. At the eve of Independence in the district, there were two High Schools and eleven Anglo-Vernacular schools of which ten were for boys and one for girls. The number of students in the High Schools was 551, out of which 548 were boys and only 3 girls. In the Anglo-Vernacular schools, the number of students was 848; out of these, 654 were boys and 194 girls.

Literacy in Amreli District Before 1951

According to the Census of 1901, there were 14,156 or 9.10 per cent literates in the district Out of these 13,622 or 16.80 per cent of males of and over 5 years were literates, and 0 72 females of and over 5 years were literates. In 1921, the percentage of general literacy rose to 16.19 per cent. The percentage rise of literacy among males was 25.81 while that of females 5.90.

Growth of Literacy since 1951

According to the Census of 1951, there were 1,09,400 literates in the district of Amreli as constituted in 1961 and formed 20.35 per cent of the total population. Percentage of male literates was then 27.80, while that of female literates 12.70. In 1961, the percentage of literacy rose to 28.91 (38.79 or males and 18.62 for females).

Literacy and Educational Standards

Literacy—The following statement gives detailed about the extent of literacy in rural and urban areas of the different talukas of Amreli district as revealed by the Census of 1961.

STATEMENT XV.1

Rural/Urban Literacy by Sex, 1961

Sl. No.	District/Taluka/Mahal	Total/ Rural/ Urban	Literate (number)	Percentage of total population	Literate males (number)	Percentage of total male population	Literate females (number)	Percentage of total female population
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Amreli District .. .	T	193,076	28 91	132,136	38 79	60,940	18.62
		R	135,307	25 76	94,241	35 27	41,066	15.91
		U	57,769	40 52	37,895	51 60	19,874	28.75
2.	Amreli	T	46,887	42.64	29,873	53 35	17,014	31.53
		R	27,184	40 17	17,203	50 50	9,981	29.70
		U	19,703	46 60	12,670	57 77	7,033	34.56
3.	Kunkavav-Vadia . .	T	22,576	24 50	16,312	34.72	6,264	13.86
		R	13,761	19.63	10,497	29.38	3,264	9.49
		U	8,815	39 94	5,815	51.68	3,000	27.73
4.	Babra	T	11,195	20 04	8,329	29.15	2,866	10.50
		R	8,136	17.03	6,267	25 65	1,869	8.01
		U	3,059	37.82	2,062	49 85	997	25.23
5.	Lathi	T	19,604	28.46	13,895	39.49	5,709	16.94
		R	13,720	26.20	10,008	37.51	3,712	14.45
		U	5,884	35 62	3,887	45.68	1,997	24.93
6.	Lilia	T	9,672	23.14	7,376	34.82	2,296	11.13
		R	8,256	22.00	6,400	33 65	1,856	10.03
		U	1,416	33.11	976	45.08	440	20.83
7.	Dhari .. .	T	27,340	33.46	17,878	42.92	9,462	23.62
		R	22,021	32.04	14,392	41.34	7,629	22.49
		U	5,319	41.01	3,486	50.93	1,833	29.89

STATEMENT XV.1—*concld.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8.	Khambha	R	8,700	31.01	5,780	40.08	2,920	21.38
9.	Rajula	T	14,304	18 44	11,023	27.80	3,281	8.66
		R	8,387	13 84	7,017	22.67	1,370	4.62
		U	5,917	34 87	4,006	46.05	1,911	23.10
10.	Jafrabad	T	5,492	15.37	4,199	23.15	1,293	7.35
		R	3,162	11.38	2,566	18.08	596	4.39
		U	2,330	31.76	1,633	41.37	697	17.34
11.	Kodinar	T	27,306	35.90	17,471	44.96	9,835	26.43
		R	21,980	34.00	14,111	42.90	7,869	24.79
		U	5,326	46 61	3,360	56.32	1,966	36.01

Source : *District Census Handbook* 1961, Amreli, p. 17.

For obvious reasons the percentage of literacy was quite pronounced in the urban areas. The highest percentage of general literacy was recorded in the Amreli taluka (42.64 per cent) and the lowest in the Jafrabad mahal (15.37 per cent). In the urban areas, the highest percentage of literacy was found in Kodinar (46.61 per cent) and the lowest in Jafrabad (31.76 per cent). The literacy figures for the rural areas for Amreli and Jafrabad are 40.17 per cent and 11.38 per cent respectively. The highest percentage of literacy in Amreli taluka was distributed in the proportion of 53.35 for males and 31.53 for females and the lowest percentage in Jafrabad mahal into 23.15 per cent for males and 7.35 per cent for females. Urban literacy was highest for males in Amreli taluka (57.77 per cent) and for females in Kodinar taluka (36.01 per cent). It was the lowest for Jafrabad which returned 41.37 per cent males and 17.34 per cent females. In the rural areas, Amreli taluka showed the highest percentage of literacy for both the sexes 50.50 for males and 29.70 for females, the lowest being Jafrabad with 18.08 and 4.39 respectively.

STATEMENT XV.2

Literacy by Age Groups, 1961

Age groups	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
All ages	28.91	38.79	18.62	25.76	35.27	15.91	40.52	51.60	28.75
5-14	34.36	41.44	26.56	31.19	38.32	23.40	45.50	52.32	37.85
15-34	40.42	53.36	26.84	36.31	49.02	23.12	55.14	68.58	40.50
35-59	30.78	46.04	15 14	27.06	41.39	12.32	44.59	63.53	25.51
60+	19.01	35.73	5.14	16.14	30.71	3.80	29.70	55.55	9.90
Age not stated ..	9.81	14.72	5 04	9.98	14.93	5.22	5.56	10.00	...

Source :
District Census Handbook 1961, Amreli, p. 17.

The overall percentage of literacy in the district was 28.91, urban 40.52 and rural 25.76. Of the total literates, children in the age-group 5-14 account for 34.36 per cent, males accounting for 41.44 per cent and females 26.56 per cent. The highest literacy is found in the age-group 15-34 whereunder 49.02 per cent males in rural areas and 68.58 per cent males in urban areas are found literate. Among females, in the age-group 15-34, 23.12 per cent in rural areas and 40.50 per cent in urban areas were literates, showing expansion of educational facilities in the district as also change in the outlook of the people in respect of women's education. The spread of education in this district owes its origin to the introduction of the compulsory education in the former Baroda State in 1906.

Educational Standards—A true index of educational progress can be had from the figures of different educational levels compiled by the 1961 Census and reproduced below.

STATEMENT XV.3

Educational Levels in Urban and Rural Areas, 1961

Sl. No.	Educational levels	Urban Persons	Urban Males	Urban Females	Rural Persons	Rural Males	Rural Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Total	142,570	73,444	69,126	525,253	267,179	258,074
1.	Illiterate	84,801	35,549	49,252	389,946	172,938	217,008
2.	Literate (without educational levels)	9,751	6,198	3,553	40,857	29,329	11,528
3.	Primary or junior basic	45,260	29,222	16,038	93,697	64,197	29,500
4.	Matriculation or higher secondary	2,240	1,989	251	753	715	38
5.	Technical diploma not equal to degree	79	77	2	..	..	..
6.	Non-technical diploma not equal to degree	14	14	..	..	..	..
7.	University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree	243	222	21	..	..	..
8.	Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree	182	173	9	..	..	..
	(i) Engineering	29	29	..	..	..	..
	(ii) Medicine	45	42	3	..	..	..
	(iii) Agriculture	15	15	..	..	..	..
	(iv) Veterinary and dairying	4	4	..	..	..	..
	(v) Technology	4	4	..	..	..	..
	(vi) Teaching	22	20	2	..	..	..
	(vii) Others	63	59	4	..	..	..

Source : *District Census Handbook* 1961, Amreli.

These figures serve as an index to the educational progress the district has made in recent years. An important characteristic of the pattern of education as revealed by the statement is low standard of education in the countryside than in the towns. As many as 74.24 per cent of the total rural population was illiterate as against 59.48 per cent for the urban areas. These statistics further indicate the better availability of educational facilities in towns rather than in villages. Another significant conclusion which could be drawn is that in the district both in urban and rural sectors, those without any educational levels are comparatively less than those who have passed primary or junior basic stage.

Appreciable headway in the field of university and technical education has been made in the district in recent years. According to the Census, in the urban areas 243 persons received higher university education or the post-graduate degrees other than technical degree and 182 persons were reported to have technical qualifications. It is interesting to note that of the persons taking post-S. S C. courses, 43 per cent held technical degrees or diplomas equal to degrees or post-graduate degrees and 57 per cent had university degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree.

Among the technical courses, persons preferred medicine, teaching, and agriculture as compared to others. Females who formerly did not take these courses have now begun taking benefits of higher technical education in medicine and teaching.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

After integration of the Baroda State with the former Bombay State, and under the Five Year Plans, the primary education has got tremendous fillip, as evident from the following statement :

Year	No. of primary schools (including basic schools)	Pupils
1951	218	28,406
1956	237	31,310
1961	600	80,029
1966	655	100,269
1968-69	674	114,357

From the above statement, it is observed that in 1950-51, the number of primary schools in the district was 218 with 28,406 pupils. Primary education registered a remarkable growth between 1951-61, when it added 382 primary schools and 51,623 pupils. This rise may be due to a number of factors, to begin with, consciousness of the people for the need of education, Government efforts to promote education under the Five Year

Plans, facilities extended by the Government such as grant-in-aid, freeship to backward class students and the compulsory education, and addition of schools due to territorial changes in the district in 1959 (large number of villages were transferred from the adjoining districts to this district). In 1966, at the end of the Third Five Year Plan, the number of primary schools in the district was 655 with 1,00,269 pupils. In 1968-69, the number of primary schools rose further to 674 with 1,14,357 pupils.

Basic Education

The Basic education was first conceived by Mahatma Gandhi at Wardha. It was introduced with certain modifications by all the State Governments in India. In Gujarat, this new programme was first mooted in 1939, when it was decided that basic education should be imparted in stages of junior and senior basic schools. Perhaps the Gujarat State is the only State in India where the system of the basic education has been adopted in a number of institutions upto the post-graduate stage and is not confined to the elementary stage only.

In the district, 8 primary schools were converted into basic schools in 1955-56. During the Second Five Year Plan, there were 212 basic schools, out of which, 76 schools were junior basic schools and 136 were senior basic schools. Out of 212 basic schools, 63 schools were purely spinning, 136 spinning and weaving and 13 were devoted to kitchen gardening and agriculture. The number of students covered under the basic education during this period was 37,038. During the period 1961-69, the number of schools did not much increase but there was considerable increase in the number of students.

Training Facilities for Teachers—During the former Baroda State regime a number of schemes were introduced to improve the quality of teachers. Due to the introduction of free and compulsory education, the need for training teachers became urgent. Being a pioneer State in many fields, the State also had laid solid foundation for the training facilities for teachers. A training college for male teachers was established in 1885 and was continued upto 1896 at Baroda. Because of the famine and plague, the college was closed. It was reopened in 1904. With expansion of educational activities, the need for another training college was felt. A second training college was, therefore, opened in the year 1913 at Baroda. In 1915, the new training college was shifted to Patan (North Gujarat) to accommodate teachers from the Kadi and Amreli Divisions. Subsequently, in the year 1915, a training class for the first year course was opened at Amreli and the training college at Baroda continued to train the second and third years teachers.

After Independence, there has been considerable expansion in the field of education. Free and compulsory education has accelerated the expansion beyond expectation. This has placed great strain on the available financial and man-power resources, with the result that the quality in field of education, especially at the primary level has suffered considerably. The most important factor for improving quality of a teacher is the teacher himself. He should have good academic qualifications. Pre-service and in-service training of teachers is, therefore, a must for improvement of educational standards. In view of this, a number of training colleges have been sponsored by the Gujarat State. At Amreli, there are two training colleges - one for men at Vadia which is managed by Government and the other at Babapur for women teachers which is private institution. Number of teachers under training in both these institutions was 315 in the year 1968-69. The number of trained teachers in the primary schools was 1,658, out of 2,464 teachers (64.29 per cent). This was undoubtedly a notable achievement.

School Buildings—Akin to the problem of trained teachers was the provision of buildings to house the increasing number of pupils in the village schools. An intensified programme of construction of buildings for primary schools was initiated during the First Five Year Plan and continued in the Second and Third Plan periods with much success. The number of school buildings constructed under Three Plan periods is 280.

Secondary Education

The secondary education constitutes a vital link between the primary and the college education. Broadly speaking, secondary schools are intended to impart education suitable for pupils in the stage of adolescence.

After Independence, the progress in secondary education has been rapid. In 1950-51, there were 12 secondary schools and 2,123 pupils in the district. In 1961, the number of schools rose to 32 and the students to 9,025. In 1968-69 the number of schools rose to 33 and the students to 10,546.

Higher Education

There was no institution for higher education in the district before Independence. After the formation of Gujarat State, Shri Prataprai Arts and Kamani Science College was started from June 1961, and the Khusaldas Kurji Parekh Commerce College was started from June 1967. These colleges are located in Amreli, a brief description of which is given below:

Shri Prataprai Arts and Kamani Science College, Amreli—With a view to introduce higher education amongst the rural people, the Arts and

Science College was established at Amreli in 1961. In the Arts section the college conducts classes upto the B. A. degree courses and in Science upto B. Sc. courses. It has its own college building with hostel accommodation. The number of students on its roll was 371 in the Science section and 254 in the Arts section in 1967-68. It has a good library with 6,000 books. The college is managed by the Amreli Jilla Vidyasabha, Amreli.

The Khusaldas Kurji Parekh Commerce College, Amreli—This commerce college was established in 1967, with a donation of Rs. 1 lakh from the Khusaldas Kurji Smarak Trust. The foundation stone of its building was laid on 12th March, 1967 by Dr. Jivraj Mehta, former Chief Minister of Gujarat, and was formerly declared open on 15th June, 1967, by Shri Raghavji Lauva. It conducts classses upto B. Com. degree courses. In 1967-68, 99 students were on its roll. There is hostel accommodation for college students. The institution is managed by the Amreli Jilla Vidyasabha, Amreli.

Professional and Technical Education

The importance of professional and technical education in a developing economy aiming at doing away with the existing imbalances between the agricultural and non-agricultural pursuits cannot be over emphasised. Such education is essential as it is production-oriented. It trains candidates in the technical know-how of various specialised vocations. Professional and technical education makes education more meaningful and purposeful in the modern economy which is becoming more complex day by day.

Before the advent of mechanisation, the necessary training required in the operation of the traditional crafts used to be imparted through a system of apprenticeship as there was hardly any need for a separate institution of professional and technical education in the economic structure of the time.

The former Baroda State had done some pioneering work in this field, at Amreli. There was semi-technical school which in addition to the general subjects of primary schools had a craft bias. The objective was to attract the children of local artisans to attend the primary school without invoking the pains and penalties under the Compulsory Education Act.

After Independence the technical education assumed new dimensions and a number of technical institutions were established in the district such the K. K. Parekh Technical High School, Amreli and the Industrial Training Institute, Amreli.

The K. K. Parekh Technical High School, Amreli was established in 1953 as a Government institute. It conducts the classes for technical

education in standards VIII to XI. It provides training for various occupations including tailoring and cutting, radio servicing, hand and power-loom weaving and electrician and wiremen apprentice course. The number of students on its roll was 117 in the year 1967-68. It has its own building and has hostel facilities.

The Industrial Training Institute at Amreli, which was established in the year 1963, is a Government institute. It is managed by the Director of Technical Education, Gujarat State. It conducts various technical courses, including (1) blacksmithy, (2) carpentry, (3) electrician, (4) fitter, (5) machinist (composit), (6) mechanic instrument, (7) mechanic diesel, (8) pattern maker, (9) turner, (10) welder, and (11) wireman.

During the year 1967-68 there were 98 students on its roll with 16 members on the teaching staff. The institution has its own building.

Courses in Commerce—In recent years, courses in commerce are gaining popularity. There is no separate commercial school in this district, but three schools at Amreli, Vadia and Jafrabad have incorporated commercial courses in their regular curriculum. About 343 students took advantage of these courses during the year 1968-69. For higher education in commerce the K. K. Parekh Commerce College is the solitary institution.

Spread of Education among Women

The Baroda State was in the vanguard in the sphere of female education. In 1875, two girls' schools - one at Baroda and the other at Petlad were opened. In Amreli, the first girls' school was established with 46 girls in the year 1879. In 1880, there were eight such schools throughout the State, with a total attendance of 502.

In 1885, His Highness Maharaja Sayaji Rao III stressed the importance of female education in a memorandum which ran as under :

> "I would particularly emphasize the importance of the education of girls. It is the unremitting watchfulness and conciliatory supervision of intelligent and educated mothers which form powerful factors in giving right tone to infant minds, and which are the best agents for the eradication of crooked ways. Women regulate the social life of a people, and men and women rise or fall together. To fit the girls for their functions in our social life, I would give my special attention to the opening of girls' schools."[1]

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1. Desai G. H. and Clarke A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), p. 315.

It was the declared policy of the Department of Education (Baroda State) to open schools for girls in all places where a sufficient number of students was forthcoming. Where sufficient number of girl students was not forthcoming, girls under twelve years of age were admitted to the boys' school. In all cases, inducements in the shape of special prizes and scholarships were given to encourage regular attendance, but progress in the case of female education was not adequate.

Amongst the difficulties experienced in accelerating the progress of female education was the lack of female teachers. To remedy this situation a Training College for Women was established in the year 1882 at Baroda and it was provided with an exceptionally commodious building on the banks of the Sursagar tank at Baroda. They were provided with excellent practising schools. All girl students received scholarships while under training.[1]

For the benefit of women, who could not attend the regular girls' schools owing to pressure of domestic duties, a *zanana* class was conducted and students were given instruction in elements of reading, writing, keeping accounts, needle work and embroidery at Amreli. This class was closed when the law for compulsory education became effective. Over and above the regular curriculum, embroidery, cookery and drawing were taught in the girls' schools at Amreli.

In the year 1931, there were 7 primary girls' schools in the district. The total number of girls was 4,452, out of which 1,324 were in regular girls' schools, while 3,128 girls were taking education in mixed schools.

Before Independence, the number of girl students in primary schools was 10,067 in 1946. Out of these, 3,962 were in girls' schools, while the remainder were in mixed schools. The number of primary girls' schools had risen to 17.

After Independence, the progress of female education in the field of primary, secondary and higher education shows a remarkable growth. In 1951, there were 28 primary girls' schools in the district and the total number of girls in the primary schools was 11,503. Out of these, 4,375 were in regular girls' schools and 7,128 were in mixed schools. Between 1951-61. 12 primary girls' schools were added, making the total number of the schools 40. In the year 1961, the total number of girls was 29,945, *i. e.*, 18,442 girls were added during period from 1951 to 1961. Out of these 11,532 were in mixed schools and 6,910 were in girls' schools. This phenomenal rise can be ascribed to the transfer of areas from the adjoining districts. In the year 1969 the number of girl students rose to 38,116.

1. DESAI G. H. AND CLARKE A. B., *Gazetteer of the Baroda State*, Vol. II, (1923), p. 315.

In the field of secondary education in the former Baroda State, not much progress was achieved. First secondary girls' school was started in the district at Amreli in 1945. In the year 1951, the number of girls in this school was only 150. Besides this, the number of girl students attending the mixed schools was about 350. In 1961, the number of girl students increased in both the schools, 479 in girls' school and 858 in mixed schools. Another girls' high school was started in the district in 1966, and the total attendence of the girls rose to 1,885. Out of these, 1,108 were in mixed schools and 777 in girls' schools. The number of students in 1968-69 was 2,300. Out of these 982 were in girls' schools and the remainder were in the mixed schools. The rise in the number of girl students between 1958-59 and 1968-69 were 167 per cent.

Quite a significant number of girls have recently started taking university and technical education. Many of them have come out as graduates in various branches of higher education and are working as teachers, doctors and in other professions. Over and above, in Mahila Adhyapan Mandir at Babapur, 139 female teachers are receiving training.

The problem of wide disparity between the enrolment of boys and girls at all stages of education, drew the attention of the Government of Gujarat. The problem has, therefore, received special attention in the formulation of the Fourth Plan. In order that more girls may be attracted to join schools, it is proposed to award a large number of additional freeships to girls students studying in the secondary schools. It is also decided that girls studying in Standard VIII and IX should be provided free education. In the year 1968-69, 874 girl students are benefited by this provision in the district.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Physical education is a cirricular subject in general but a compulsory subject in the secondary schools of the State. At primary level, one period per day is allotted to physical education. Besides this, a number of activities are organised to accelerate physical education in the State. The details of these activities and schemes sponsored in the district are described below.

National Discipline Scheme—The scheme is sponsored by the Central Government. Under this scheme, physical training is imparted through drill and sports. This scheme lays considerable emphasis on moral training and instils in the younger generation a sense of patriotism, self reliance and discipline. During the Third Five Year Plan, 11 instructors were appointed in the district for this work. They trained 9,206 pupils.

A. C. C. and N. C. C.—The A. C. C. and N. C. C. activities are also carried on in this district. During the Third Five Year Plan 280 cadets got training under A. C. C. and 100 cadets under N. C. C. annually.

Secondary school students sports competition is held twice (Autumn meet and Winter meet) every year at taluka, district and State levels. In the year 1968-69, 607 participants have taken part in the competition at district level. Out of these, 6 were selected for the State level competitions and two for the national level competitions.

The Youth Festival Sports Competition which is open to all, is organised by the District Sports Festival Committee. In the year 1968-69, 1,897 youths participated at taluka level competitions, 572 youth participated in district level competitions and 96 were selected to take part in the State level competitions.

ORIENTAL SCHOOLS

Sanskrit—Sanskrit learning was given special attention in the former Baroda State. In the year 1915, the late Maharaja Sayajirao III started an institution for preparing *purohits*, *puraniks*, *pundits* and *shastris* to meet the requirements of the modern society. Since then, advanced courses in several branches of Sanskrit learning were organised. A number of scholarships were given at the institution. Oriental schools engaged in imparting institution in Sanskrit were given lump sum grant-in-aid. In 1945-46 there were 4 Government Sanskrit Schools with 118 pupils, and five private Sanskrit schools with 127 pupils in the State. In Amreli district, Sanskrit Pathshala was started in 1944 at Vadia, by Government. The number of students on its roll in 1968-69 was 60.

ADULT LITERACY AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

Social education was one of the important items in Gandhiji's plan for the uplift of our country. He was the main architect of this programme. Social education received its due share and importance as well as funds during the First Plan and to some extent during the Second Plan, but during Third Plan, it received inadequate funds.

Social education activities are not merely confined to the spread of literacy. It should enable an individual citizen to participate with understanding in the life around him, to develop his latent abilities and create in him a healthy, scientific and civilised outlook towards life and his surroundings and in this way to bring about a healthy change in his interests and habits. In order to achieve these wider objectives, the programme of social education should be oriented to the local needs and conditions as well as to the cultural level of the particular locality covered.

Before the introduction of Panchayati Raj in 1963, social education formed an important part of developmental activities carried on in the C. D. Blocks. Each Block was provided with two Social Education Organisers specially selected for the social education work among men and women. Extensive social education work, such as youth clubs, farmers' clubs, *mahila mandals*, *bhajan mandals*, children's welfare centres, *shibirs*, and camps, etc., was undertaken in these blocks. Necessary help and guidence were extended by the Inspecting Officer of the Department in the conduct of these activities. Seminars and conferences arranged under the C. D. Programme had given great impetus to social education movement.

At the State level, the Gujarat Social Education Committee was established in 1948. At the district level the District Education Committee of the District Panchayat is managing the social education activities.

The progress achieved in respect of social education in the district is as follows :

Sl. No.	Year	Social education classes	Adult made literate
1.	1951-52	14	84
2.	1955-56	110	513
3.	1961-62	20	179
4.	1966-67	6	126

Source :
Social Education Officer, Gujarat State, Surat.

EDUCATION AMONG BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES

Extent of Literacy and Education

In the following statement, a comparison is made of the percentages of literacy and educational standards among the general population and the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the rural and urban areas of the district, as returned by the Census of 1961 :—

	Rural		Urban	
	Percentage of genera population	Per cent. of total Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes	Percentage of general population	Per cent. of total Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Illiterate	74.24	83.46	59.48	75.19
Literate (without educational level)	7.78	4.59	6.84	7.67
Primary or junior basic	17.84	11.93	31.75	16.86
Matriculation and above and technical	0.14	0.02	1.93	0 28

Source :
Based on Census of India 1961, Vol. V, Gujarat, Part V-A, *Tables on Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes*, pp. 230 and 257.

These figures reveal a low level of literacy among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes which was even lower in the rural areas. It seems that most of the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students come upto the primary or junior basic stage. Those, who have passed matriculation and above or acquired some technical training, constitute a very small percentage of their total population.

According to the 1961 Census, population of the Scheduled Castes in the district was 46,045, *i. e.*, 6.89 per cent of the total population. Scheduled Castes, being a weaker section of the society, needs special attention and treatment in various fields of development activities. In this respect, the former Baroda State had undertaken special measures to spread education among Dheds, Chamars, Khalpas, and Bhangis known as Antyaja. In 1883, a policy decision was taken to open special schools for them and supply them with books, slates and other requisities. For their benefit, a number of educational institutions were established such as special schools known as Antyaja Schools, Boarding Schools, Garoda Schools and Boarding Houses. In the year 1891-92, one boarding school was opened at Amreli, where free education with boarding, lodging and clothing were supplied to such students. Scholarships were also awarded. There was a provision for 100 students in this boarding school. Another unique institution called the Garoda Pathshala was founded in August 1913 to educate the Garodas, the priests of the Antyajas, in the proper performance of the religious rites and ceremonies. In this institution, Sanskrit, along with other subjects of the curriculum, was taught to the sons of the Garodas. This Pathshala was closed in the year 1921-22 and an alternative arrangement was made to admit the Garoda students in the Antyaja Boarding House at Amreli, where they were imparted education in rituals.

In the reorganisation of 1959, certain areas from Bhavnagar, Rajkot and Junagadh districts were merged in Amreli. Under the Bhavnagar State, a number of concessions were offered to provide better educational facilities for the children of the depressed classes in the form of scholarships and grants. After the integration of the princely States, the former Government of Saurashtra took various steps to ameliorate the conditions and prospects of the Harijans. The Harijans' children were exempted from payment of fees in schools and colleges. Liberal grants-in-aid to the extent of 50 per cent of the expenditure incurred were made available for providing hostel facilities to the Backward Class students. In order to promote social integration an extra 10 per cent grant was given to the Harijan hostels admitting 10 per cent of the caste Hindus and *vice-versa.*

After Independence, during the three Plan periods, various steps have been taken to encourage education among them Backward Class students are granted tution fees, examination fees and scholarships, etc. Hostel

facilities are also provided to these students. During the First Five Year Plan, two Backward Class hostels were started at Kodinar and Amreli and a grant of Rs. 35,000 was given. In the Second Five Year Plan, three more hostels were opened at Chalala, Lathi and Bagasara. About Rs. 25,000 were spent during Second Five Year Plan and Rs. 26,000 were spent for these hostels during the Third Plan Period.

A brief description of some of the important schemes designed to promote education is given below.

EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES FOR BACKWARD CLASS STUDENTS

Primary education is free to all classes of people. But Backward Class pupils receiving secondary education were given tuition fees by Government irrespective of income till 1962-63, when Government introduced income-limit according to which full tuition fees are paid to those, the total annual income of whose parents is less than Rs. 3,600/- and half tuition fees to those whose parents earn between Rs. 3,601 to Rs. 4,800. Besides, merit-*cum*-poverty scholarships are awarded to Backward Class students studying in Stds. V to XI and other technical and professional courses, who have secured 40 per cent of marks or more in the last annual examination, and total annual income of whose parents does not exceed Rs. 6,000/-.

For the post-S. S. C. courses, the Government of India scholarships are awarded by the Directorate of Harijan and Adivasi Welfare. The rates of scholarships range from Rs. 27/- to Rs. 75/- per month per student. To facilitate their admission in various courses, Government has reserved certain percentages of seats for them in various educational institutions, higher and technical.

Backward Class Hostels—In addition to the above mentioned educational facilities, provision is made for hostel facilities also. It is the policy of Government to encourage voluntary organisations in starting hostels for Backward Classes. Financial assistance is given to them by Government according to the rules framed for the purpose.

Eight such hotsels for students of Backward Classes in the district are located as under :

Sl. No.	Name of hostel	Place	Name of agency conducting the hostel
1	Thakkarbapa Kumar Chhatralaya	Kodinar	Gujarat Harijan Sevak Sangha, Ahmedabad.
2.	Sarvajanik Kumar Chhatralaya	Chalala	—do—
3.	Pachhat Varg Kanya Chhatralaya	Babapur	Sarvodaya Saraswati Mandir, Babapur
4.	Sarvajanik Kumar Chhatralaya	—do—	—do—
5.	Sarvajanik Vimukta Jati Kumar Chhatralaya	—do—	—do—
6.	Janata Chhatralaya	Jalia	Sevak Samaj, Jalia
7.	—do—	Mota Ankadia	Amreli Vibhag Kelavani Mandal, Jalia
8.	Sarvajanik Chhatralaya	Lathi	Kelavani Mandal, Lathi

Cosmopolitan Hostels—With a view to removing inferiority complex of the Backward Class children and providing them facilities to mix up, stay and dine freely with the children of caste Hindus in the common hostels, the cosmopolitan hostel scheme is undertaken. There are two kinds of such hostels, *viz.*, (1) hostels mainly meant for Backward Class students where non-Backward Class students are admitted, and (2) hostels meant for non-Backward Class students admitting students of Backward Classes. In respect of the first category, the rate of grant-in-aid is Rs. 25 per month per boy and Rs. 30/- per girl whereas for the second category, the rate is Rs. 30/- to 40/- per inmate.

Udyog Mandir—Government opened one Udyog Mandir, a technical institute at Port Victor in the year 1956, with a view to imparting primary technical education to the Backward Class candidates. It was shifted to Rajula in 1958. There is a provision for training in tailoring, carpentry and electrical wireman courses in this institution for 60 students. Free boarding and lodging facilities are also provided to the trainees. 10 per cent of non-Backward Class students are admitted in the institute. The age-limit is 14 to 18 years and minimum educational qualifications required for admission is certificate of standard IV. In the year 1965-66, there were 23 students, out of which 14 were of Scheduled Castes, 7 Scheduled Tribes, 1 denotified tribe and 1 other.

Centres for Cultural Activities—There are seven centres promoting cultural activities in the district. They are at Rajula, Babra, Kunkavav, Lathi, Liliya, Kaj and Halaria. There are three *Balwadis* at Bagasara, Damnagar and Dungar.

Educational Managements

(1) *The Sarvodaya Saraswati Mandir, Babapur*—The Sarvodaya Saraswati Mandir was established in 1949, at Babapur. It is an important institution which promotes the ideals of new education (नयी तालीम) for the last 20 years. It manages the following educational institutions:

(i) The Kanya Chhatralaya,

(ii) The Kumar Chhatralaya, and

(iii) The Vimukta Jati Kumar Chhatralaya.

In 1968-69, the number of borders in these three institutions was 110. The Mandir also conducts one Mahila Adhyapan Mandir for female primary teachers. There is hostel accommodation for the trainees. For the purpose of promoting the spirit of self-help and co-operation among students

of rural areas, the Mandir is managing one post-basic high school. The number of students studying in the high school during the year 1968-69 was 186.

Over and above educational activities, the Mandir also promotes cultural activities. There is one centre for classical music. About 700 students have secured certificates from this institution. The centre also organises debating competitions and sports competitions.

The centre is also promoting agricultural development by research experiments. It manages the following centres for the same:—

(i) Research Centre for Agriculture,
(ii) Agriculture Demonstration Centre,
(iii) Agriculture Exhibitions,
(iv) Horticulture Centre, and
(v) Gaushala.

(2) *Amreli Jilla Vidyasabha, Amreli*—Amreli Jilla Vidyasabha, Amreli was established in 1949, with a view to promoting educational activities in the district. It conducts two colleges, *viz.*, Shri Prataprai Arts and Kamani Science College, Amreli and Shri Khusaldas Kurji Parekh Commerce College, Amreli.

(3) *Amreli Vibhag Kelavani Sangha, Jalia*—This Sangha was established in 1960 with the object of promoting education. Under its management there are six high schools located at Jalia, Chital, Mota Ankadia, Babapur, Keriachad and Sajiavadar. It also manages one cosmopolitan hostel at Mota Ankadia.

(4) *Chalala Kelavani Mandal, Chalala*—The Chalala Kelavani Mandal was established in 1943, with a view to establishing educational institutions in the taluka. Under its management there are two high schools, one at Chalala and the other at Gopalgram. In addition to this, it manages one open air theatre and Motilal Nehru Vyayam Shala at Chalala.

(5) *The Bal Kelavani Mandir, Bagasara*—For promoting educational activities among the children, the Bal Kelavani Mandir was established in 1931 at Bagasara. It manages one Kumarika Chhatralaya, one Khadi centre and one museum for children.

(6) *Jafrabad Kelavani Uttejak Mandal, Jafrabad*—With a view to spread education in the area, the Jafrabad Kelavani Uttejak Mandal was established in 1926. Under its management, there are a number of educational institutions in the area. Over and above, it conducts medical institutions. These institutions are listed below.

- (i) Shree Parekh and Mehta Multi-purpose High School and P. P. P. Dandia Middle School, Jafrabad,
- (ii) Sheth Nagardas Juthabhai Samji Sarvajanik Dispensary and Tapibai Girdharlal Dwarkadas Sanghvi Maternity Home, Jafrabad,
- (iii) Sheth Tribhuvandas Mavjibhai Free Library and Reading Room, Jafrabad,
- (iv) Shri Gangadas Purshottamdas Parekh Vidyarthigriha, Jafrabad,
- (v) The Jasodabai Monji Amidas Vora Varigriha, Jafrabad,
- (vi) The Vijalibai and Prabhavatibai Vora Kanya Chhatralaya, Jafrabad and
- (vii) The Home Science Institute, Jafrabad.

These institutions are run primarily by donations from the local people residing outside the district and other philanthropists.

LIBRARY

Library movement in the district dates back to the former Baroda State. At the time of starting the library movement His Highness Sayaji Rao III adopted the principle that all the libraries coming under the scheme should be entirely free to all persons, young and old, rich and poor, irrespective of caste or creed. Library Department was established in 1910. An American expert was appointed to organise the Department. He founded the Central Library, organised the system of State-aided libraries, and reading rooms in mofussil towns and villages, travelling libraries, and established first library school which had ever been organised in India.

In the Amreli district, the first public library was established in 1873, followed by such libraries in Damnagar in 1890, Chalala in 1904, in Kodinar in 1914, etc. The important libraries are dealt with below :

(1) *The Amreli Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Amreli*—It is an old library established in 1873. It is housed in its own building. In 1969 it had a collection of 7,300 books in different languages, classified into Gujarati 2,000, English 4,000, Hindi 800 and Marathi 500. It has started a separate section for women and children in a separate building. It also conducts reading room. For facility of reading by persons in rural areas, there is an arrangement for supply of books by mobile library system.

(2) *Shri Manibhai Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Damnagar*—This is an old library established in the year 1890. In 1967-68, it had a collection of 5,142 books in different languages, classified into Gujarati 4,289, Hindi 177,

Marathi 362 and English 314. It has a membership of 242. The number of daily newspapers, weeklies, periodicals and magazines received in 1967-68 was 47.

(3) *Sheth Tribhovandas Mavjibhai Library and Free Reading Room, Jafrabad*—It is an old library established in 1902, now managed by Jafrabad Kelavani Uttejak Mandal. It has its own building. The library has a collection of 8,446 books in different languages, classified into Gujarati 7,989, Hindi 220, English 222 and Sanskrit 15. It has also a reading room, which receives 60 periodicals and 7 dailies.

(4) *Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Chalala*—This library was established with the aid of the former Baroda State in the year 1904. It had a collection of 3,939 books in different languages classified into Gujarati 3,729, English 117, Hindi 88 and others 5, in 1969.

(5) *Shri Pratapsinhrao Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Kodinar*—It is an old library established in the year 1914. It is housed in its own building. The library has a collection of 4,688 books in different languages classified into Gujarati 4,156, English 159, Hindi 193, Marathi 146 and others 34. The number of daily newspapers, weeklies, fortnightlies and magazines received was 33. It had a total membership of 244.

(6) *Shri Kalapi Free Library, Lathi*—This library was established in 1926 by the Kumar Mangalsinhji. In 1969, it had a collection of 2,759 books. It also conducts a reading section. It had a membership of 566.

(7) *The Tapibai Ranchhoddas Mahila Pustakalaya, Amreli*—This library was established in 1932. It is housed in its own building. It has a collection of 8,452 books in different languages, classified into Gujarati 7,202, Hindi 354 and Marathi 896. It also conducts reading room and arranges debating competitions.

(8) *Bilimoria Sarvajanik Municipal Library, Dhari*—This library was established in 1958. It has a collection of 898 books in different languages. 5,897 books in different languages, classified into Gujarati 4,856, Hindi 267, Marathi 327 and English 447. The library arranges to supply books in rural areas. It is also a centre for the *sishta vanchan* examination held by the Central Library, Baroda.

(9) *The Sarvajanik Mahila Pustakalaya, Chalala*—The library was established in 1958. It has a collection of 898 books in different languages. It is housed in its own building. This institution also conducts sewing classes and cultural activities.

(10) *The Municipal Bal Pustakalaya, Dhari*—The library was established in 1959. It has a collection of 2,857 books in different languages,

classified into Gujarati 2,825, Hindi 26 and English 6. The library is free for all children studying upto XI standard. This institution conducts the examination for *sishta vanchan.*

In 1969, there were 18 Government recognised libraries in the district including 1 city library, 13 town libraries, 2 Mahila libraries, and 2 Bal libraries. They are as under :

(1) Shri Amreli Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Amreli.

(2) Shri Municipal Pustakalaya, Lathi.

(3) Shri Kalapi Free Library, Lathi.

(4) Bilimoria Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Dhari.

(5) Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Kunkavav.

(6) Shri Pratapsinhrao Pustakalaya, Kodinar.

(7) Shri Ben Kamalavanti Ranchhoddas Gandhi Free Library, Rajula.

(8) Shri Manibhai Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Damnagar.

(9) Chital, Jasvantgadh Gram Panchayat Pustakalaya, Chital.

(10) Sheth Shri T. M. Library, Jafrabad.

(11) Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Khambha.

(12) Sarvajanik Pustakalaya, Chalala.

(13) Gordhandas Pursottamdas Bhuptani Nagar Panchayat Library, Bagasara.

(14) Shri Gram Panchayat Lalbhai Library, Vadia.

(15) Sarvajanik Mahila Pustakalaya, Chalala.

(16) Tapibai Mahila Pustakalaya, Amreli.

(17) H. R. Bal Pustakalaya, Chalala.

(18) Municipal Bal Pustakalaya, Dhari.

CULTURE

Cultural, Literary and Educational Survey

Antiquities—The cultural history of Amreli district shows a glorious past in many aspects of which the archaeological one is the most prominent. The Archaeological Department of the former Baroda State undertook excavations at Amreli in order to trace the areas of the Indus Valley

Civilization. An old mound called the "Gohilwad Timbo" situated on the junction of the river 'Vadi' and the 'Thebi' was selected as a suitable site for the purpose.

Excavations were undertaken in 1934 and subsequent years. Many interesting antiquities of considerable archaeological and historical interest were unearthed. They included beautiful and well proportioned terracotta figures of gods, human beings and animals, pottery fragments with interesting designs, red polished pottery of Roman type, toys, goldsmiths' dies, beautifully carved pieces of conch bangles, beads of different shapes, colours and materials, grinding stones with Mauryan polish, metal objects as well as coins of the Kshatrapa and Gupta period (from 1st to 5th centuries A. D.). Some of the antiquities tend to show affinities with the latest phase of the Indus Valley Culture.

The mound is assignable to about 3rd century A. D., while the polished pottery handles speak of the days of the flourishing trade with the Roman Empire. The grinding stones with Mauryan polish, however, take the antiquities of Amreli back to the 2nd and 3rd century B. C.

An inscription on stone preserved in the Nagnath temple of Amreli indicates that the ancient name of Amreli was *Amaravalli*[1] or *Girvanvalli*. A set of copper plates discovered at Malila of this district suggests that this area was ruled by the well known Maitraka king Dhruvasen II of Valabhi in the year 642 A. D It is also known from these plates that the village Machiala situated at a distance of only 6.44 kms., from Amreli was known as Machehhenika in those days.

An inscription on stone of the time of Akbar the Great is also preserved in the Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya at Amreli.

Amreli thus has preserved many interesting reminiscences of considerable historical importance.

Similarly, religion also has immensly contributed towards the moulding of the cultural life of this district. The aura of different religion is still reflected in temples, holy places, paintings, caves and the lines and literary sayings of the saints of this district. There is a place called Muldwarka near Kodinar of this district, that is supposed to be the original residence of Lord Krishna. It is still a holy place for pilgrims for Hindus with religious faith. An ancient temple of Varaha in Jafrabad of this district is one of the rarest temples in India, as in it is worshipped the idol of Varaha an incarnation of "Lord Vishnu." Verai Mandir of Amreli is

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1. Eternal ivy.

another such temple having the idol of goddess Varahi, an incarnation of goddess Shakti. *Varahi* is one of the Sapt Matrukas propitiated in Puranas. The temples of Haveli and Nagnath can provide material for study to our budding architects, while the mural religious paintings of Antalia near Lilia and in a small temple of Sarasia near Dhari of this district are waiting for the art critics who can undertake research. The caves in the Sana hills near Khambha and also those near Damnagar show clear impact of Buddhism in the past in this district. Two beautiful idols have been excavated from the land of Sarasia in 1955. They are (i) the idol of Lord Vishnu (4½′ in height) and (ii) goddess Rukmini (3′ height). They are made from a smooth black emerald stone. They show southern characters and are full of grace and lustre.

Noble Saints—Amreli district is proud of being the "Janmabhumi" or "Karmabhumi" of some of the most renowned noble saints of Gujarat. Mahatma Muldas, (Amreli), Bhoja Bhagat (Fattehpur), Pipa Bhagat (Pipavav), and Dana Bhagat (Chalala), are most prominent among them. Their lives exhibit the noble human qualities of deep love and whole hearted sympathy towards their fellow beings and immense devotion to god. Mahatma Muldas in the 18th century saved the life of an unmarried mother by accepting the odium of adultery upon himself. His '*bhajans*' are still sung in his place known as '*Mahatma Muldas ni Jagya*' situated in the heart of Amreli.

Bhoja Bhagat of Fattehpur in the 18th century had impressed Shri Vithalrao Gaikwad the then Diwan of Amreli by his great power of tolerance. His clothes and utensils are preserved and worshipped at Fattehpur even to-day.

Bhoja Bhagat was a saint poet of Gujarat. He is noted for his '*chabkha*' (satires) a kind of *Bhajans*. They are directed against the hypocrites flunkeys who befool the people with their sweet tongue, but malicious hearts. His verses are edited and published by his descendant Prof. Mansukh Savalia as "*Bhoja Bhagat no Kavya Prasad*" in 1966.

One lamp kindles another and the light continues to spread. The same has happened in the case of Mahatma Muldas. He adopted a daughter who married to one Ananatray, a saint from U. P. This noble couple dwelt in Amrapur of this district. A pious soul was born in their house in Vikram Samvat 1814. He later on came to be known as Shri Muktanand Swami. Shri Muktanand Swami was a learned scholar and a renowned sage. Though married, he observed celibacy throughout his whole life. He studied scriptures under Swami Ramanand

of Shri Ramanuj sect, and resided to Lojapur in Kutch. Here he met Swami Sahajanand, the founder of the Swaminarayan faith. He helped Shri Sahajanand in preaching and establishing the doctrines of his new faith. He wrote commentaries in Sanskrit on the *Brahmsutra* and on the tenth chapter of the *"Bhagwadgita."* His independent works are *'Nirnay Panchak'* and *'Satsangi Jivan Mahatamya'* both in Sanskrit.

Swami Muktanand was the first pioneer of Swaminarayan sect in Gujarat. And it should be regarded a happy accident that Shri Yogiji Maharaja the most prominent spiritual *guru* of this sect of the present times, also belongs to the Amreli district. He was born at Dhari in Vikram Samvat 1948. He dedicated his life at the feet of God at the tender age of sixteen. He has preached the divine message of Lord Swaminarayan not only in India but also in Africa and counts among his followers many educated persons and officials and Ministers.

Literary Activities—Apart from the religious literature of saints like Muldas, Bhoja Bhagat, and Swami Muktanand, this district has contributed to the preservation, research and development of the folk and *charani* literature of Gujarat. A number of such songs of unknown bards and poets are still sung with peculiar accent by the villagers in various *'Nesdas'* of the district. The rocks and rivers of Gir forest-especially those near Lakhapadar have provided source material for a number of novels and stories of the late Shri Zaverchand Meghani, the folklorist of Gujarat.

It is also said that the saint poet Isardan of Jamnagar had spent his later days in Ishwaria, a village 3 kms. away from Amreli.

Amreli district can really be proud of being the birth place of two of the most eminent poets of Gujarat, *viz.*, 'Kant', Shri Manishanker Ratnji Bhatt (1867-1923 A. D.) and 'Kalapi', Sursinhji Takhtsinhji Gohel (1874-1900 A. D.).

In the poems of 'Kant', poetry shines out with all its artistic and asthetic glory. His 'Khand Kavyas' have still a unique place in the Gujarati poetry. All his best poems are collected in his *'Purvalap'*. Besides, *'Purvalap'* he has written the following books:

Two plays:— (i) *Roman Swarajya* and
(ii) *Guru Govindsinh*

Other works :—(i) *Panch Samvado*
(ii) *President Lincoln-nu-charitra*
(iii) Criticism of Siddhant Sara
(iv) History of Education

Translation :— (i) Egypt
(ii) *Ek Devino Vrutanta*
(iii) *Lagna Sneh ane tena Vishuddh Swarupo*
(iv) *Swarg ane Narak*
(v) *Niti Shashtra*
(vi) *Gitanjali*

Edited :— (i) *Khari Mahobat athava Gulabnu Ful*

Kant's centenary was celebrated all over Gujarat and Bombay, and a special function was held at his birth place in 1968 at Chavand in this district.

Kalapi, the former ruler of Lathi is compared with the great English poet Shelley. He sang the songs of love and sorrow that lifts human heart from the mundane place to the spiritual world. His poems were collected and edited in "*Kalapino Kekarava*" by his poet friend Kant posthumously. His other works are:

(i) *Kalapini Patradhara.*
(ii) *Kashmir no Pravas.*
(iii) *Char Samavado.*
(iv) *Swidenburg no Dharm Vichar.*
(v) *Mala ane Mudriku.*
(vi) *Nari Hridaya.*

The last two are translations. His literary life ended by his premature death at the young age of twenty-six. All his works except the 'Kashmir no Pravas' are posthumous. In 1932, the conference of Gujarati Sahitya Parishad met at Lathi, where it was given the name Kalapinagar in honour of this noble poet.

Shri Harilal Dwarkadas Sanghavi of Amreli was the first man, to translate the *Rubaiyat* of Omar Khayyam in Gujarati in 1930. He also translated some good books of Saint James Ellan. Among his original books 'Message of Lord Krishna' (English) was much appreciated. His autobiography is still unpublished. From his autobiography, some valuable data can be dug out regarding the social, educational, cultural and political life of Amreli before fifty years.

The blind Kavi Hans of Amreli was a poet whose life pulsated with national spirit. His songs with national themes were sung with zeal by the 'Satyagrahis' in 1942. Though blind, he could see with his inner eyes the

deep cravings for independence in the heart of every Indian. His poems are collected in the *'Hans Manas'* his only available work. It is tragic coincidence that he passed away singing his own *bhajan 'Prabhuji avo tamare gher andharu ghor'* in a public meeting.

Kavi Shri Dula Bhaya Kag (1887 A. D.), better known as Kavi Kag belongs to the Majadar village of this district. He has not only awakned the spirit of *charani* literature, but has also modernised its various aspects. His *duhas, chhands,* and *bhajans* are so much popular, that the number of singers eke out their maintenance by singing them. His poems are collected in seven volumes of *'Kagvani'*. His poetic talent was recognised and he was awarded the title of 'Padmashri' in 1962.

Kavi Shri Lalit—Shri Janmashankar Mahashankar Buch (1877-1946 A. D.) was born at Lathi of this district. He has written following works:

(i) *Sita Vanvas*
(ii) *Lalit na Kavyo*
(iii) *Vadodara ne Vadle*
(iv) *Lalit na bijan Kavyo*

His *bhajan* "મહુલી મળની પેઠે તીર, સંતો વહાલાં" was very popular.

Amreli feels a deep sense of honour in having Smt. Hansaben Jivrajbhai Mehta (1897 A. D.) as her daughter-in-law. Her sincere significant work in the field of education and social reforms and literature is well known. She is one of the pioneers and the first Vice-Chancellor of the Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda. She studied Journalism in London, and worked as a Joint Editor in Hindustan weekly in 1920. She was the editor of the *'Pushpa'*, a monthly for children, and *Bhagini Samaj Pustika.* She translated Gulliver's Travels in Gujarati. Her stories written for children give delight even to the elders. Her translations of Hamlet and of the Ramayana show her mastery over meters and language. Her works are :

(1) *Bal Vartavali.*

(2) *Kishor Vartavali.*

(3) *Rukmini.*

(4) *Bavalana Parakramo.*

(5) *Golibarani Musafari.*

(6) *Arunnu adbhut swapana.*

(7) *Tran Natako ane bija Ekanakio.*

(8-10) Translation of 'Hemlet', 'Merchant of Venice' and two plays of Mollier.

(11) Translation of the Valmiki Ramayana.

(12) Women under the Hindu Law of Marriage and Succession (English).

(13) Tract on Post-War Educational Reconstriction and Civil Liberties (English).

(14) Adventures of King Vir Vikram (English).

In recognition of her social and educational activities, she was awarded the 'Padma Bhusan' in 1959.

Shri Harikrushna Vyas of Lathi was really a man of literature but, owing to his premature death, he could not serve the Muse of the Gujarati literature.

Shri Bavachandbhai Mavji Vadera, a noted writer of old school has written three books, *viz.*, (i) *Samajik Kranti*, (ii) *Andhara Khunama* and (iii) *Khandit Malkha.*

Shri Shanti Ankadiaker is also a good story writer, while Shri Bhanuprasad Pandya, Shri Ramesh Parekh and Shri Mansukh Savalia are promising poets of the modern times. Their poems appear frequently in prominent Gujarati magazines.

Drama—Though this region is not fortunate enough in claiming the foundation of any noteworthy dramatic company, it can certainly take pride in giving birth to a dramatist of very high order. Shri Mulshanker Mulani (1868-1957), born at Chavand, gave a new life to the dramas of old dramatic stage of Gujarat. His social, historical, and mythological dramas - not less then fifty in number - were repeatedly staged by almost all the dramatic companies of Gujarat and Bombay. He was the first man to write 'tragedies' in Gujarati, '*Ajaba Kumari*' '*Saubhagya Sundari*', *Krishna Charitra*' and '*Devkanya*' were some of his most celibrated plays. Besides dramas, he wrote and composed number of songs for many dramatic companies. Mulshankar's dramas reveal the salient features of the old Gujarati stage. The technique of the settings, music, and acting of those days deserve special attention. The central theme of all his plays generally show the age-old conflict between the good and the evil, ultimately resulting in the victory of the former over the latter. Dr. Dinesh H. Bhatt, has written a thesis on his life and literature in 1966.

Dance and Music—The district has secured a niche in the world of dance and music by the cultural activities of Shri Yogesh Desai of Gopalgram who hails from this district. He is one of the eminent dancers of India. His performances are appreciated not only in this country but also in abroad. 'Discovery of India' and '*Chaula devi*' are some of his most popular ballets.

Rasmandli of Kunkavav taluka of this district has made its name even at Delhi by winning a medal.

Shri Shantilal Desai of Amreli works as music assistant in a number of films. He has also worked as a music director in the Gujarati film - 'Mahatma Muldas'. One Shri Gusalal was a noted *tabla* player of this district.

Films—This region has provided two great pioneers to the Film Industry of India. Late Shri Mohanlal Dave 1890-1970 A. D., of Lilia of this district, was the first veteran story writer of Hindi films. The themes of his stories were mostly social, historical and mythological. He had written a number of filmstories, the most popular among them being those written for the films, 'Mother-India', '*Ghara Sansar*', '*Satta Bazar*', and '*Mabap*.'

Shri Chatrabhuj Doshi of Chalala, who expired on 22nd January, 1969, at the age of 76 was not only a good poet and a conscientious journalist but was also a great name in the film industry of India. He made his debut as a director of the film '*Mustafa*'. He was connected with the Ranjit Studio and the Sagar Movitone. He wrote a number of stories and screen plays for Hindi films. His last screen play was for the well-known mythological film '*Balaram-Shri Krishna*'.

Paintings—The mural paintings at Antalia and at some other places of Dhari taluka, indicate that some artists whose antecedents are not known have flourished in the past in this district. The old tradition is maintained to the present day. Shri Mangalsinhji of Lathi is known all over India by his beautiful mural paintings. He has studied art in London under Sir William Rothenstein. His pictures decorate the walls of the Rashtrapati Bhavan and the Hotel Asoka in New Delhi. A swing, exquisitely carved by Shri Mangalsinhji was presented to His Excellency Bulganin when he visited India as a Prime Minister of U. S. S. R. His collections have always been a feast for the eyes.

Shri Natvarlal Joshi, a veteran artist of Amreli is better known as a portrait maker of high order. Some of his best portraits have been exhibited in the Salarganj Museum at Hyderabad. Shri Toofan Rafai and Shri

Jivan Adalja are also two promising artists of Amreli. They have studied art in the J. J. School of Art, Bombay. They represent modern trends in the Indian Art. Both of them have held several one-man shows of their pictures successfully in leading cities like Bombay, Delhi, Calcutta, etc.

Shri Jivan Adalja went to Poland for special training. He is better known for his decorative art. He received a medal in All India Art Exhibition.

Shri Toofan's pictures portray the stark realities of life. His pictures are appreciated in U. S. A., England, and Switzerland. He is working as an Art Designer in All India Handloom Board, Varanasi while, Shri Adalja is in the art section of the Publicity Department of the Government of India, New Delhi.

Education—Maharaja Shri Sayajirao Gaikwad of the former Baroda State was famous for his social and educational reforms. He was the first Maharaja to introduce compulsory free primary education in his State in the beginning of the 19th Century. It is a significant circumstance that this experiment was first tried in this district. In the same way, in response to Gandhiji's constructive ideology, the first Khedut Shala was started in Jesingpara of Amreli by the late Shri Ramjibhai Hansrajbhai Kamani. Thenceforward, Amreli has always remained a centre of education. This is evident from the fact that this district has three multi-purpose high schools, one I T. I., and two colleges apart from the number of secondary and primary schools. Amreli Jilla Vidyasabha under the presidentship of Dr. Jivrajbhai Mehta, has been doing commendable work in this field. The Tatvajyoti Vidyapith of Rajula should deserve a special mention for its special teaching method. Classes of culture and philosophy are well conducted by the inspiration of Shri Pandurang Shastri in this Vidyapith.

Museum—Shri Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya at Amreli which was started in 1955, is the first children's museum of India. It was started by Shri Prataprai G. Mehta, one of the pioneers of the museum activities in India and the president of All India Children's Museum Association.

This museum comprises of the following sections :—(1) International gallery, (2) Philatelic section, (3) Story section, (4) Paintings and Transport section, (5) Scientist's gallery, (6) Toys section, (7) Amreli Antiquity, (8) Ethnology, (9) Art and (10) Mahatmaya.

In 1964, 'Nehru Children Zoo' and 'Natural History Section' were added, while in 1966 Gandhi Astrological Section was started.

The museum contains many models which are of special interest to children as well as to the grownups. They are displayed in such a way as

to impart knowlege and create a deeper interest in the subject. Museum are now-a-days recognised as educational, cultural and art Community Centres. To translate this ideal into action the Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya has started a few cultural and educational activities of which the Bal Bhavan is very promising.

Shri Bhagwanji N. Mehta of Amreli is an institution by himself. He has his one man's museum containing thousands of stamps, match-boxes, playing cards, and a number of curios, which occupy 20 rooms for display. His collection is rightly called a store-house of history.

Science—The present age is called the age of science and technology. Science in fact has changed the whole map of the world by its wonderful achievements in its manifold of branches. India has also contributed to them by the researches of some of the great scientists. Amreli situated in distant corner of Gujarat has also to offer a little in this field.

Shri Ankachandara Bhayawala of Chital has drawn the attention of eminent scholars by his new findings in Astrology. He has written more than sixty research articles which are published in various leading papers.

Shri Jayantilal Algia, a brilliant student of Amreli (in U. S. A. at present), has made researches in the science of Engineering. His book 'The Bridge' is a text-book in many universities.

Periodicals—Even before the publication of the old Gujarati periodical, 'Visami Sadi' in Gujarat, Amreli was publishing a number of magazines. Shri Dhanji Kanji Gandhi was publishing various papers at intervals to create a climate of social reforms and independence. Two monthly magazines, *viz*., 'Bage Momin' and 'Nur Hidayat' were published for some years from Amreli in those days. Late Shri Karshandas Chitalia, a life member of the Servants of India Society, Poona, was the Editor of a magazine for women, while 'Bhagini' 'Varta,' 'Sarvodaya,' 'Stri' and 'Anekant' were edited and published by Ravani Bros., from Ankadia at different times and for some years.

At present the following Gujarati periodicals are published from this district:

PRAKASH	DAILY
NAGARIK	WEEKLY
YUGSEVAK...	—do—
GHADTAR	FORTNIGHTLY
VIRHAK	—do—

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

SURVEY OF MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH FACILITIES

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, under the Baroda regime, common diseases in Amreli district during the monsoon months were malarial fevers, bowel complaints, rheumatic infections and eye diseases. Diseases of the lungs prevailed in cold season and cholera sometimes appeared in summer. People being ignorant and illiterate had no knowledge of cleanliness and did not report for vaccination even in epidemics like small-pox. The climate of Kodinar taluka being humid, tuberculosis was rampant. Between the years 1899-1900 and 1915-16 cholera raged furiously in the district (Prant) which took a heavy toll. In 1917-18 the district was affected by plague, which was severe in Amreli and Damnagar mahals and as many as 975 people died.

A devastating epidemic of influenza raged throughout the whole State during the year 1919. The Medical Department did its best to fight the epidemic. The Education Department helped the Medical Department by mobilising the staff for relief work. A special grant of Rs. 1.00 lakh was made by the State Government for the purchase of anti-influenza drugs and sanction was also accorded to the engagement of temporary staff. Two Inspectors were appointed to look after sanitation and vaccination in the Prant. The district was divided into Amreli, Dhari, Damnagar, and Kodinar Zones. A band of vaccinators was appointed for each division which looked after the vaccination work. In Amreli Prant, dispensaries were opened between 1881 and 1908 for the provision of medical treatment to the people.

Medical Department—It was the custom in Maratha States to encourage instructions in Indian systems of learning such as the *Vedas*, the *Shastras*, the *Purans*, astrology and medical science. In the courts of the Indian princes, there existed certain groups of learned persons, proficient in different subjects. A stranger visiting the State in search of employment as *vaid* or *hakim* was examined by a committee of experts in Indian systems of medicine and after satisfying their tests, the experts recommended him either for monetary reward or for employment. The ruler and the ruled had implicit faith in the *vaids* who studied the Ayurved or the Science of Life and Health. Each court had a number of such Indian practitioners, and that Baroda State was no exception.

No record, however, exists of any Medical Department in the Baroda State prior to the reign of Maharaja Sayajirao II. Medicines were pres-

cribed by court *vaids* or *hakims* in the presence of patients and a trustworthy man was then despatched to buy such medicines from the market.

Introduction of a New System—His Highness the Maharaja Khanderao loved his army much and attached to each of his regiments and troops a *vaid* or *hakim*. Accordingly two medical institutions were attached to the battalions at Dhari in which European medicines were kept. The rudiments of a Medical Department were thus brought into existence during his reign. His successor Maharaja Malharrao took a bold step by opening a dispensary in 1874 called the Malharrao Charitable Dispensary at Amreli.

Raja Sir T. Madhavrao, Dewan of Baroda, was an able administrator and had introduced a number of reforms in the State. He also organised the State Medical Department. The Malharrao Charitable Dispensary at Amreli was converted into a Civil Hospital. His Highness Maharaja Sayajirao III, on assumption of his full regal powers. adopted a liberal policy and a definite programme for providing medical relief to the people in the State. In this scheme, all district towns were provided with hospitals, and all taluka towns with dispensaries. The Government also adopted a policy according to which small dispensaries in charge of Sub-Assistant Surgeons were opened wherever people of town/village or a municipality or local board resolved to pay either a lumpsum of Rs. 10,000 or contribute Rs. 900 per year towards their upkeep. According to this policy medical relief was made available in the State within a radius of every five miles.

This programme of opening dispensaries was fully implemented by 1945-46. The extension of medical relief for women and children also received constant attention of the Government. With the establishment of Shri Maharani Shantadevi Trust in 1939, all efforts in this direction were co-ordinated and received a new impetus. Of the 30 maternity homes established by the Trust, 3 functioned in the Amreli district. Anti-tuberculosis measures were taken by the State by opening Shree Padmavati Tuberculosis Hospital and Sanatorium near Baroda in 1943 and was equipped with a pathological laboratory, X-ray machines and an operation theatre. Moreover medical practitioners and *vaidyas*, were offered subsidies to encourage them to settle down in rural areas and to administer medical relief in villages and the surrounding areas. Accordingly a subsidised ayurvedic dispensary was started at Mota Ankadia in the district.

On the health side too, the State Government took a number of measures. Apart from introducing compulsory registration of births and deaths, the State made vaccination and revaccination compulsory under law. Sanitation formed the principal function of municipalities in towns and of panchayats in villages. The municipalities were assisted by Sanitary Committees and

Panchayats by District Sanitary Inspectors. To fight the epidemic of malaria, surveys of affected and threatened areas were undertaken. Sanitary Associations formed in important towns carried out propaganda and assisted health staff in their work. Viewed in this context the following pages describe the rapid strides made in the sphere of medical and public health in the recent times.

VITAL STATISTICS

Birth, death and survival rates given below give broad indication of general trends and natural increase in population in the district between 1959 and 1967:

Year		Birth-rate per thousand	Death-rate per thousand	Natural increase in population	Death-rate for infants per thousand live-births
1959	..	38.0	14.6	23.4	96
1961	..	30.4	12.2	18.2	89
1963	..	27.4	11.7	15.7	78
1965	..	25.3	7.7	17.6	54
1967	..	25.7	8.7	17.0	59

Source : Directorate of Health and Medical Services, Ahmedabad.

These statistics indicate a fall in birth-rate, death-rate and death-rate for infants due to improvement in the registration of vital statistics and expansion of medical and public health facilities in recent times.

Common Diseases—Common diseases in the district are small-pox, fevers, dysentry and diarrhoea, diseases of the respiratory system and cholera. The causes of deaths are indicated below:

Sl. No.	Cause of death			No. of deaths 1966	1967
1.	Cholera	..	..	1	..
2.	Small-pox	..	..	6	85
3.	Plague	..	..	..	..
4.	Fevers	..	..	2,625	2,650
5	Dysentery and diarrhoea		..	142	141
6.	Respiratory system	..	..	427	491
7.	Wild beasts	..	..	1	2
8.	Snake-bite	..	..	24	28
9.	Rabies	..	..	..	5
10.	All other causes	..	..	2,740	3,111
	Total	..	..	5,966	6,513

Source : Directorate of Health and Medical Services, Ahmedabad.

Barring deaths under all other causes (3,111), fevers were the mos common and claimed by far the largest number of lives (2,650) in th district in 1967. Other diseases commonly reported were those of th respiratory system and dysentery and diarrhoea, jointly accounting for 63 lives. Diseases like plague and cholera have been completely brough under control as a result of various preventive and prophylectic measure taken by Government described later in this Chapter.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

Organisational set-up of the Medical Department—The Directorate o Health and Medical Services is divided into two sections - medical an health. On the medical side, the Director is assisted by a Deputy Direc tor of Medical Services, under whom are various sections dealing wit medical colleges, hospitals, nursing schools, mental hospitals, cancer hospi tal, opthalmic institute, etc. On the health side, he is assisted by th functional Assistant Directors of Public Health in charge of differen health programmes implemented through the District Health Officers There is also a Joint Director of Public Health Services at the headquarter in charge of the family planning programme and Maternal and Chil Health Services which are implemented through the District Healt Officers and District Family Planning Officers at the district level. A full time Deputy Director of Public Health looks after Malaria-Filaria eradica tion schemes at the State headquarters. He functions through th Regional Malaria Officers and Unit Officers working in the districts.

At the district level, the Civil Surgeon, Amreli, who is also the Supe rintendent of the Civil Hospital, is the administrative head of the Medica Organisation. He is directly subordinate to the Director of Health an Medical Services (Medical), Ahmedabad. He exercises control over al subordinate medical officers in the district and is also responsible for thei efficiency, discipline and proper performance of duties.

On the preventive side, the District Health Officer looks after publi health activities in the district. He is assisted by District Family Plannin Officer, Medical Officers, Sanitary Inspectors, Vaccinators and other staf He also exercises control over the hospitals and dispensaries transferred t the District Panchayat on the inauguration on the Panchayati Raj fron April, 1963. The hospitals and dispensaries controlled by the Civi Surgeon and the District Health Officer, Amreli, are listed below :

Government Hospitals and Dispensaries under the Civil Surgeon	Hospitals and Dispensaries transferred to the District Panchayat
1	2
1. Civil Hospital, Amreli	1. Jafrabad Dispensary
2. Cottage Hospital, Khambha	2. Vadia Dispensary
3. M. R. Valia Hospital, Lathi	3. Panchayat Dispensary, Amreli
4. Bhutta Vora General Hospital and Secondary Health Centre, Rajula	

Civil Hospital, Amreli—The Malharrao Charitable Dispensary was converted into a Civil Hospital. But it functioned as a Cottage Hospital with 30 beds till 12th March, 1966. In the absence of sufficient facilities to treat patients with modern methods, patients from Amreli district had to move to places outside the district. To remedy this situation a new Civil Hospital at Amreli was built up at a cost of Rs. 20 lakhs which started functioning on 13th March, 1966 in its new premises. It is provided with up to date medical equipments. It has 75 beds.

The hospital is headed by the Superintendent, Civil Hospital, who is also the Civil Surgeon of the district belonging to the Gujarat Medical Service Class I. He is assisted by four Medical Officers, Class II, one Medical Officer, Class III, one Dental Surgeon, Class III, 18 Nursing personnel including 1 matron, and 2 sisters, four compounders, two X-ray and laboratory technicians and other para-medical staff. Special facilities to patients are also provided, *viz.*, X-ray department, Dental section, Opthalmic section with a separate operation theatre and equipments for performing eye operations, modern operation theatre for other operations, etc. Besides anti-rabic treatment, facility of an ambulance van is also made available. Barring a few diseases which require specialised treatment, all other diseases are treated in the hospital. An Auxiliary Nurse and Midwife Training Centre has been started in the hospital which imparts training to 15 student nurses at a time.

The hospital is also provided with a pathological labouratory and equipments and accessories to carry out routine investigations of blood, urine, etc. The expenditure incurred amounted to Rs. 285,182 in 1967-68. The number of patients treated in the hospital are shown below :

Patients	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Indoor	1,598	1,734	2,711	3,479	4,201
Outdoor	37,269	39,344	34,846	35,077	42,999

Cottage Hospital, Khambha—The Cottage Hospital at Khambha was established in the year 1965 with 20 beds, as a scheme under the Five Year Plan for extending medical facilities to the people in remote and backward areas. The building for the hospital is constructed at a cost of Rs. 5 lakhs. Land for the construction of the hospital was donated by Hasanali Mansuralli in memory of his brother, Badruddin Mansuralli.

The hospital is headed by a Medical Officer who belongs to the Gujarat Medical Service Class II, and is assisted by one compounder, one Nurse, and other staff. The hospital provides for treatment of routine diseases and also provides anti-rabic treatment to patients bitten by stray and rabid dogs. Indoor and outdoor patients treated in the hospital in 1967 and 1968 are shown below :

Year	Indoor	Outdoor
1967	29	5,384
1968	161	21,155

The expenditure incurred amounted to Rs. 18,511 in 1968.

M. R. Valia Government Hospital, Lathi—This hospital was started in the year 1945 during the time of the former Lathi State and was renovated and expanded in the year 1950 out of donation of Rs. 90,000 provided by philanthropic persons like Shri Kalubhai Valia and was named Shri M. R. Valia Hospital. It has 24 beds at present.

The hospital is looked after by a Medical Officer, who belongs to the Gujarat Medical Service Class II, and is assisted by one Medical Officer, Class III, three compounders, two midwives, one X-ray technician, a laboratory assistant, one nurse, ward boys and other staff. All medical and surgical cases excluding orthopaedic cases are treated in the hospital which is equipped with two special rooms, ambulance van, and X-ray department, and a full-fledged operation theatre. It also provides treatment for Tuberculosis and administers diathermy and infra-rays therapy. A clinical laboratory has been working in the hospital for the last ten years, where blood, urine, stool and sputum investigations are carried out. The hospital also attends to post-mortem and medico-legal work besides providing anti-rabic treatment.

The trustees of Shri M. R. Valia trust have also offered an amount of Rs. 37,250 for the construction of a six-bedded septic ward to be named Shri M. G. Modi Septic Ward and six-bedded children's ward with one special room to be named Shri R. T. Bhayani Special Room, which the Government of Gujarat has accepted. The construction of these wards would be undertaken shortly.

The following are the figures of patients treated at the hospital in 1964 and 1968:

Year	Indoor	Outdoor
1964	1,196	27,264
1968	773	18,637

The expenditure incurred by the hospital increased from Rs. 34,412 in 1964 to Rs. 51,081 in 1968.

Bhutta Vora General Hospital and Secondary Health Centre, Rajula—A donation of Rs. 40,000 was received from the donors, Sarvashri Chhaganlal Vishram Bhutta, Chhaganlal Trikamji Bhutta and Girdharlal Trikamji Vora for starting of a general hospital at Rajula to cater to the demand for medical services of the inhabitants of the place. The Government accordingly started the hospital from 1956 with 40 beds. Ten more beds were added in 1962 making a total of 50 beds in the hospital at present.

The hospital is headed by a Medical Officer belonging to the Gujarat Medical Service Class I. He is assisted by Medical Officers Class II and III, a laboratory technician, an X-ray technician, nurses, compounders and other staff. The hospital provides the following facilities : (1) X-ray—including screening, angio-cardiography, etc., with the help of 100 M. A. X-ray machine, (2) Clinical laboratory started from 1958 carries out examination of blood including occult blood, urine, stool, and sputum and routine diseases are diagnosed here and treated.

The indoor and outdoor patients treated in the hospital in 1962 and 1966 are shown below :

Year	Indoor	Outdoor
1962	7,893	19,227
1966	19,900	30,078

The expenditure incurred by the hospital was Rs. 105,571 in the year 1966-67.

Secondary Health Centre—The Centre attached to the hospital undertakes all the activities connected with the health centre such as medical relief, family planning, maternal and child health service, vaccination and re-vaccination, control of communicable diseases, etc. It supplies contraceptives and performs vasectomy and tubectomy operations.

The Secondary Health Centre is looked after by an Assistant Medical Officer (Female), Health Visitor, Staff nurses, Midwives, Compounders, Sanitary Inspectors and other staff.

The indoor and outdoor patients treated in the Secondary Health Centre in 1967 and 1968 are shown below:

Year	Indoor	Outdoor
1967	8,340	87,457
1968	9,746	84,180

The expenditure incurred by the secondary health centre was Rs. 128,223 in the year 1967-68.

OTHER INSTITUTIONS

In addition to the above, there are seven other dispensaries in the district run by philanthropic trusts for the benefit of the public. They are mentioned below:

1. Sarvodaya Seva Trust Dispensary, Amreli.

2. Smt. Ratanbai Sevak Mandal Charitable Dispensary, Amreli.

3. Ayurvedic Aushadhalaya, Amreli.
4. Nagardas Juthabhai Shamji Sarvajanik Dispensary, Jafrabad.
5. Manekchand Mulchand Arogya Gruh, Bagasara.
6. Chhaganlal V. Doshi and Laxmibai C. Doshi Sarvajanik Dispensary, Rajula.
7. Uttamchand Morarji Ajmera Sarvajanik Dispensary, Damnagar.

Number of Doctors—According to the Census of 1951, the total number of doctors in the district was 75 of whom 74 were males and 1 female. The 1961 Census showed an appreciable increase in the number of doctors which stood at 219 (214 males and 5 females). Out of 219, 112 served the urban areas and 107 the rural areas. In terms of population served, there was one doctor for every 3,049 persons in 1961, as against 4,229 in 1951.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Administrative Set-up—As stated earlier, the Public Health Department is headed by the Director of Health and Medical Services, who advises Government in all matters concerning public health administration in the State. He is assisted by one Deputy Director of Public Health Services in charge of malaria, filaria, leprosy, maternity and child health and health education. There is also one Joint Director for Family Planning and maternity and Child Health for the whole State. For administration of Public Health measures, each district has a full-time District Health Officer. The Civil Hospital, Amreli, Cottage Hospital, Khambha, M. R. Valia Hospital, Lathi and Bhutta Hospital and Secondary Health Centre, at Rajula are in charge of the Civil Surgeon, Amreli. The District Health Officer is in charge of the remaining medical and health institutions and Ayurvedic dispensaries in the district. The main activities of the Public Heath Department are :—(1) preventive and curative measures, (2) vaccination, (3) T. B. control, (4) malaria control, (5) trachoma control, (6) improvement in vital statistics, (7) improvement in birth and death registration, (8) maternity and child welfare and (9) family planning.

In execution of public health activities, the District Health Officer is assisted by an Epidemic Medical Officer, a District Sanitary Inspector, two Divisional Sanitary Inspectors, a District Vaccination Inspector and a District Public Health Nursing Officer. The District Health Officer organises measures for public sanitation and hygiene at fairs and festivals and also investigates the causes of origin and spread of infectious diseases such as cholera, small-pox, whooping cough, plague, etc. He advises the Nagar Panchayats/Taluka Panchayats/Gram Panchayats in matters

connected with health, sanitation, drainage and water supply; inspects primary health centres, maternity and child health centres, alopathic dispensaries, Ayurvedic dispensaries, family planning centres and guides implementation of the National Malaria Eradication Programme and Trachoma Control, disinfection of drinking water and infected materials, construction of soak pits and latrines suitable for rural areas and removal of manure heaps from inhabited localities. Vaccination and revaccination on a large scale are being carried out by a squad of Sanitary Inspectors and Vaccinators, who work under the supervision of the District Health Officer.

Epidemics—Several deaths occurred in the past due to the severity of epidemics like small-pox, malaria, cholera, etc., in the absence of integrated public health activities in the country. Since Independence, Government has adopted several measures for the control and eradication of these epidemics by spreading D. D. T., vaccination and revaccination, collection of blood smears and survey of affected and threatened areas and prompt notification of small-pox, cholera and malaria cases. These have helped considerably combat the epidemics and substantially brought down mortality which prior to 1947 was very high.

Malaria—The National Malaria Control Scheme was introduced in this district in 1953 and was implemented in four talukas, *viz*., Amreli, Dhari, Damnagar-Lathi and Kodinar. In the initial stages, D. D. T. was sprayed for controlling the epidemic. The National Malaria Eradication Programme was launched by the Government of India from the year 1958-59. Under this programme the district was divided into three subdivisions, *viz*., Amreli, Lathi and Dhari. Under this programme surveillance operations, collection of blood smears, spraying of D. D. T. and determination of malaria parasite rate were undertaken on a mass scale. Progress achieved in the direction is shown below :

Year	Positive cases detected	Persons treated	Malaria mortality rate
1	2	3	4
1961	453	52,317	..
1963	1,059	98,321	0.02
1965 ..	1,241	91,782	0.04
1967	1,162	193,396	0.01
1968	1,962	120,065	0.01

The statistics also show that as a result of these operations, the death-rate has gone down substantially from 0.04 in 1965 to 0.01 in 1968. This programme has proved to be a great boon to the people both in the urban and rural areas.

Small-pox—After the formation of the bilingual Bombay State, the Government of Bombay undertook a campaign of mass vaccination and re-vaccination to prevent small-pox. Regulation under the Bombay Epidemic

Diseases Act, 1897, was enforced and measures like propaganda, prompt notification of small-pox cases and appointment of temporary vaccinators to assist the regular staff in affected and threatened areas were adopted. Concerted action taken by Government has helped bring the epidemic under control. At the district level a District Vaccination Inspector supervises the work carried out by Vaccinators, who number 22 in the district. The services of the staff of the Maternal and Child Health Centres are also utilised whenever the epidemic appears in a virulent form. The National Small-pox Eradication Programme has been started by Government of Gujarat from 1962, whereunder wide publicity, film shows and distribution of pamphlets have been started. These have made people health conscious, who report promptly for vaccination. Amreli district is frequently visited by small-pox epidemic In 1954, it affected 15 villages when a campaign of mass vaccination was undertaken. At the end of the Second Five Year Plan nearly 15 lakh persons were vaccinated. In 1960-61, it again appeared in a fierce form. Emergency measures for vaccination and re-vaccination were, therefore, undertaken. This will be evident from the statistics given below :

Year 1	Small-pox attacks 2	Deaths 3	Primary Vaccinations 4	Re-vaccinations 5
1964 ..	33	6	39,440	27,292
1965 ..	209	28	30,040	27,688
1966 ..	61	6	31,104	42,912
1967 ..	139	17	34,828	64,652
1968 ..	1,015	191	48,600	87,959

Source :
District Health Officer, Amreli.

Despite these protective measures, the small-pox took a high toll.

Tuberculosis—Tuberculosis is a serious deficiency disease and Government has instituted a programme of B. C. G. vaccination, which makes it possible to detect T. B. germs in a body and gives immunity from the disease for a considerable period. There is an Assistant Director of Public Health at the State headquarters in charge of B. C. G. Vaccination and T. B. Control Scheme. Under this scheme, tuberculin test was carried out on 61,784 persons and 20,261 persons were given B. C. G. Vaccination in this district between 1961 and 1968.

Trachoma—Trachoma is a serious eye disease in Saurashtra, North Gujarat and Kutch areas of the State. The Government has, therefore, started Trachoma Control centres in the State. In this district, the Trachoma Control Unit was started with headquarters at Amreli in 1961. The scheme covered 8 talukas and treated 461,188 persons.

The activity of the unit is divided into two phases, *viz.*, (i) the attack phase and (ii) maintenance or consolidation phase. In the first phase, children below the age of ten years are given mass application with Tetracycline Hydrochloride 1 per cent eye ointment twice a day continuously for five days in a week. This treatment is repeated regularly at an interval of 1½ months. After the completion of six such cycles, the attack phase comes to an end. Persons above the age of ten who suffer from sore eyes are also given this treatment for five days. In the consolidation phase. the tetracycline eye ointment is made available at a subsidised rate to the people through staff workers, who distribute them to the patients during their house visits. Poor people are given this drug free of charge. In the consolidation phase, the staff workers clean the eyes of all persons, having conjunctivitis and treat them with eye ointment. They also advise them to purchase the tubes for regular use and distribute pamphlets on trachoma control. In this district, 120,282 tubes have been sold and 146,720 conjunctivitis cases treated upto March, 1969.

Family Planning Programme—Population explosion, which has been going on since 1931, has been causing serious concern to the Government. Whatever the gains which accrue from the implementation of the Five Year Plans, are wiped out by the population explosion at 2.6 per cent in Gujarat. With a view to arresting this abnormal growth, family planning programme is being vigorously pursued all over the State. It now forms a very important plank of the district health programme. It is given top priority and is implemented through the Medical Officers of the Primary Health Centres, hospitals and dispensaries and family planning centres. These Centres distribute contraceptives among the needy married couples. The most recent development in the field of family planning is the introduction of I. U. C. D. (Intra Uterine Contraceptive Device) known as 'Lippes Loop' which is made of polythylene and shaped like double 'S', with nylon threads at the lower end. The District Health Officer with the help of District Family Planning Officer, organises camps for popularisation of this device. The rural Family Planning Centres are staffed by Medical Officer, Class III, Block Extension Educators, two Field Workers, 4 Auxiliary Nurse Midwives, Auxiliary Field Workers and 4 Social Workers, and attendants who move from house to house for free distribution of contraceptives as also to explain the benefits of planned parenthood and to prepare married males and females for undergoing vasectomy and tubectomy operations.

The District Family Planning Officer is responsible for the implementation of the family planning programme in the district. He is assisted by a male and female Assistant Surgeon, Health Education and Information Officer, Administration Officer, two District Extension Educators and other staff.

Facilities for performing vasectomy and tubectomy operations are also provided at these centres. Males and females undergoing operations are respectively paid Rs. 15 and 25.

The progress achieved in the field of family planning is highlighted by the figures shown below :

Year 1		Vasectomy 2	Tubectomy 3	Total 4	I.U.D.C. insertions 5
1965-66	..	385	84	469	2,954
1966-67	..	433	110	543	1,723
1967-68	..	855	776	1,631	440
1968-69	..	1,589	1,222	2,811	301

Source :

District Health Officer, Amreli.

The above statistics reveal that the number of vasectomy and tubectomy operations have increased from 385 and 84 in 1965-66 to 1,589 and 1,222 in 1968. But there is a precipitate fall in insertion of I. U. C. D. from 2,954 to 301 on account of the backwardness of the area and complications arising after its insertion.

Primary Health Centres—Because of the non-availability of trained nurses and midwives prior to integration, the health of women was seriously impaired during the pre-natal and post-natal stages, as the work was performed by untrained indigenous *dais* with the result that death rate among women and infants was comparatively high. With the implementation of the Five Year Plans, increasing attention is being paid to the training of nurses and establishment of primary health centres, maternity and child health centres and subsidised health centres.

The United Nations Organisation working through its various agencies promotes social and economic well-being in underdeveloped countries of the world by providing financial and technical assistance. One such international agency is the UNICEF which helps in protecting health of expectant and nursing mothers by supplying expert advice and skimmed milk powder which is distributed by the Public Health Department through the primary health centres.

Primary health centres and sub-centres provide basic health services in rural areas as well as maternity and child health services in an integrated manner and also carry out preventive and curative functions. Every primary health centre in the district is provided with one Medical Officer

(Class II), one health visitor, generally four midwives, one at the main primary centre and one at each sub-centre, one Sanitary Inspector, one driver, four Class IV servants and one Compounder. The main services provided at these centres are : (1) medical relief, (2) family planning and health education, (3) control of communicable diseases with priority for malaria, (4) improvement of vital statistics, etc.

There are 11 primary centres and 33 sub-centres in district. The primary health centres are located at Nageshri, Kunkavav, Babra, Dhari, Kodinar, Lilia, Damnagar, Rajula, Bagasara, Jodiya and Khadadhar.

Rajula functions as a secondary health centre and is looked after by a Medical Officer, Class I, a Medical Officer, Class II and other staff including staff nurses, auxiliary nurses, midwives and laboratory and X-ray technicians.

One grant-in-aid Maternal and Child Health Centre is also located at Lathi which is run by the Lathi Nagar Panchayat.

Health Education—The success or otherwise of any programme on health depends upon the whole hearted co-operation and participation of the people for whom it is meant. Health education has always remained one of the important factors of the health programme. With this end in view, health propaganda is carried out by the District Health Officer aided by Medical Officers of the Primary Health Centres, and other staff through group talks amongst the village people. The State Government has started State Health Education Bureau under an Assistant Director of Public Health in charge of the Bureau.

Directorate of Ayurved—After the formation of Gujarat State, a separate Directorate of Ayurved has been established with headquarters of the Director at Ahmedabad. He is in charge of all Ayurvedic institutions in the State including colleges and hospitals. The principal activities of the Directorate are (1) provision of medical relief to the public in Ayurvedic way through hospitals and dispensaries and medicinal chest to treat minor ailments in villages, (2) to impart education in Ayurved, (3) conduct research at Ayurvedic colleges and hospitals and (4) standardisation of Ayurvedic preparations.

Government Ayurvedic Hospital, Amreli—The Government Ayurvedic Hospital at Amreli with 15 beds was started in the year 1966. It is housed in the old Civil Hospital building, and is looked after by a Resident Medical Officer Class II, one *vaidya*, one sister, two nurses, two compounders, one dresser, three ward boys and other staff. Chief diseases treated at the hospital are fevers, diseases of the respiratory system

indigestion, rheumatism, dental and other diseases. The expenditure incurred was Rs. 62,060 and the number of patients treated were 99,057-3,276 indoor and 95,781 outdoor in 1968-69.

SANITATION

(A) *Urban Schemes*

(1) *Amreli Water Supply Scheme*—The problem of supply of protected piped water to the people of Amreli engaged the attention of the former Baroda State since 1926. Looking to the hardship faced by the people in respect of drinking water, the Maharaja Sayajirao III passed orders for the preparation of a water supply scheme for the Amreli town. Accordingly a scheme with an estimated cost of Rs. 1,015,300 was prepared and sanctioned by the State Government in 1940. According to this scheme, wells in the bed of river Shetrunji near the village Gavadka about 8 kms., from Amreli were to be utilised as source of water. However, the scheme could not be implemented on account of World War II.

Soon after the War, the wells at village Varoodi about 4 kms., from the town were investigated and selected on account of favourable natural conditions such as availability of porous soils and dyke across the river. The trial revealed that the water level in north of the dyke was very high and the yield was found to be 25,000 gallons per hour. Moreover, the average rainfall was 33". In these circumstances the site of the Varoodi wells was selected for the water supply scheme for Amreli. The scheme consisted of 3 wells each 20' dia. and 30' deep and costing Rs. 21.00 lakhs was prepared and sanctioned by the State Government.

The Amreli Water Supply Scheme is divided into Stage I and II.

Stage I—The Stage I of the scheme had to be implemented immediately at a cost of Rs. 3.30 lakhs as there was outbreak of cholera in Amreli. The well at Tarwadi village yielded 10,000 gallons per hour. Under this scheme, water at the rate 10,000 g. p. h. with 10 hour pumping is supplied. Water is chlorinated and pumped into the elevated reservoir of 24,000 gallons capacity. It was proposed to construct 13 standposts provided with taps varying from 10 to 24 in different parts and connected with the distribution lines upto the elevated reservoir.

Stage II—The scheme consisted of 3 wells 20' dia. and 30' deep connected by 5' wide channel. The water is being pumped from well No. 2 by two sets of deep well turbine pumps, to the R. C. C. 18" rising main. Water is distributed to the public through city distribution system through corrugated iron pipes of various sizes.

The scheme provides for supply of about 13.50 lakh gallons per hour. It has been executed at an estimated cost of Rs. 25.05 lakhs.

(2) *The Kodinar Water Supply Scheme*—The Nagar Panchayat at Kodinar maintains three independent water works in the town, *viz.*, (i) the Bukhari Moholla water-works, (ii) the Janivav water-works and (iii) the Golanvav water-works. Inspite of these, the volume of supply of water was not sufficient. Another scheme for supply of water was, therefore, drawn up where under water at a rate of 15 gallons per head per day, was proposed to be supplied. The Janivav well, having 17′-6″ dia. and about 45′ deep, has been selected as a source. The scheme comprises construction of 20′ × 16′ pump-house, 6″ dia. corrugated iron rising main, 2 sets of deep well turbine-pumps with a capacity of 16,800 g. p. h. A 20 B. H. P. electric motor, has been installed on the well and connected with 12 stand-posts with 6 taps each.

A reservoir of 45,000 gallons capacity has been constructed by the Kodinar Nagar Panchayat and the same is utilised for storage of water. The scheme is practically completed. The scheme has been executed at a cost of Rs. 1.35 lakhs.

(3) *The Dhari Water Supply Scheme*—The "Triveni Kunds" were the principal sources of water supply for the Dhari town. On account of construction of Dhari Dam, these were submerged; hence the necessity of finding new source became imperative.

The source for the new water supply scheme is a well situated south of the town. It consists of a well 20′ × 45′ deep in "Bhalam Area" with a 20 ft. circular pump-house, 12 ft. high over it. The water from the well is pumped to the R. C. C. reservoir of 40,000 gallons capacity through 6″ C. I. rising main by means of duplicate set of deep well turbine pumps capable of delivering 9,375 g. p. h. electrically operated by a 7.5 H. P. motor. The water then flows through 9″ to 3″ R. C. C. pipes. Water is stored in masonry cistern-*cum*-standpost having 12,000 gallons capacity and distributed to the people through pipe lines.

The scheme has been executed at a cost of Rs. 1.58 lakhs.

(4) *The Bagasara Water Supply Scheme*—The people of this town used to meet their daily water requirements of water from the wells situated in the town and the river Ghateli. This could not meet thier requirements fully. Moreover small-scale industries were developing fast in the town, which required urgent tackling of the problem of water supply to the town. A water supply scheme has, therefore, been drawn up, which consists mainly of infiltration gallery 8′ × 4′, connected with Jack well

30′ × 30′ through 4′ inspection well and conduit-main. A 40′ × 16′ pump-house will be constructed partly on well and partly on ground, in which the deep well turbine pumping machinery operated by 18 h. p. electric motor will be installed. This will help draw 25,000 gallons per hour. The water will be pumped to an elevated R. C. C. reservoir capable of storing 150,000 gallons through 12″ C. I. rising main. The water will then be supplied to the public through pipes of different sizes varying from 18″ to 3″ diameter.

The scheme which is estimated to cost about Rs. 10.73 lakhs is reported to be under construction.

(5) *The Rajula Water Supply Scheme*—The river Dhatarwadi, about 2 kms., away from the town, fulfils partly the water requirements of water of the people in the town. Water supply scheme estimated to cost Rs. 9.42 lakhs has, therefore, been prepared and approved by the Government. It consists of the construction of a porous gallery 60 metres, a Jack well 5.5 m. × 11.58 metres, 2 infiltration wells 6 m. × 7.30 m., a pump-house, 5.50 m. × 3 m., 2 sets of deep well turbine-pumps capable of pumping 1,900 litres a minute, R. C. C. rising main 200 m. long and a high level reservoir with 100,000 gallons capacity. The distribution system comprises laying down of R. C. C. and A. C. pipelines of sizes varying from 15″ to 3″ for main, branch and sub-branch lines. Moreover 22 standposts with 10 taps each together with staff and chowkidars' quarters will also be constructed.

Source of water in this scheme is the bed of river Dhatarwadi near village Zampodar about 2 kms., upstream. It is proposed to supply 400,000 gallons per day in the first stage at a rate of 20 gallons per head and 700,000 gallons per day in the ultimate stage at a rate of 30 gallons per head inclusive of demand from industrial units in Rajula.

(6) *The Jafrabad Water Supply Scheme*—The Jafrabad water supply scheme consists of a well called "Quarry well" of 40′ × 20′ × 8′ as a source. It comprises the following works:

(i) a well No. 1, 40′×20′, (ii) a pump-house 20′×20′×12, (iii) two sets of centrifugal pumps with a capacity of 10,000 gallons per hour worked by 7.50 h. p. electric motor, (iv) 6″ corrugated iron rising main 2,850 ft. long and (v) a high level reservoir with 50,000 gallons capacity. The distribution system consists of pipelines 3,900 metres long. Moreover 13 standposts with eight taps each will be constructed at different places. Provision for chlorination of water has also been made in this scheme so as to supply disinfected water to the people. The entire scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 2.52 lakhs.

From this scheme, 2 lakh gallons per day will be made available in the first instance at the rate of 20 gallons per head per day and 381,000 gallons per day at rate of 30 gallons per head per day on completion of the scheme.

(B) Rural Water Supply Schemes

The following are the rural water supply schemes implemented by the Public Health Works Circle, Rajkot, in the Amreli district.

(1) *Sajan-Timba Group of Seven Villages Water Supply Scheme*—These villages originally obtained water from the village wells and pond, but during the summer months the pond dries up and the people experience hardship. The sub-soil water is brackish and bitter. Due to these reasons, the water supply scheme has been undertaken. It mainly consists of : (a) 130′ long and 4′ × 3′ in size infiltration gallery with filtering media in surroundings space, (b) 4′ × 3′ masonry conduit, 427′ in length connecting the well, (c) 18′ × 35′ Jack well with a pump-house over it, (d) duplicate sets of deep well turbine-pumps, having capacity of 10,800 gallons per hour against a head of 90 ft., driven by 10 H. P. electric motor, (e) a 40,000 gallons capacity R. C. C. elevated reservoir, (f) 6″ corrugated iron rising main, and (g) distribution system consisting of 9″ to 3″ R. C. C. pipes.

The scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 9.14 lakhs. It is proposed to supply daily 171,000 gallons of water.

(2) *The Vavda Village Water Supply Scheme*—The main source of getting potable water at Vavda was from the wells situated in the nearby fields. As this was not enough, the water supply scheme was drawn up. Under the scheme a well is proposed to be constructed about 12′ × 60′, with a 15′ × 12′ pump-house fitted over it at a distance of 1.5 kms., from the village. The water is proposed to be pumped into 18,000 gallons capacity masonry cistern-*cum*-standpost, through 3″ R. C. C. rising main by means of one set of deep well turbine-pumps operated by 5 H. P. electric motor capable of delivering 2,500 gallons per hour. On completion, it will provide drinking water at the rate of 15 gallons per head per day. It is estimated to cost Rs. 79,420.

(3) *The Tibdi-Bhoringda Village Water Supply Scheme*—Both the villages are in the Lilia mahal of this district. Bhoringda has its own source of sweet water supply on the outskirts. In the case of Tibdi, water available from the wells within an area of 1.60 kms., a round the village is brackish and not potable. A water supply scheme has, therefore, been prepared for the Tibdi village. However, the benefit of protected piped water supply is also to be made available to village Bhoringda also.

A public well in Bhoringda village has been selected as a source of water. It is 9′ diameter and about 40′ deep. A 18′ × 15′ pump-house capable of storing 1,500 gallons is constructed over it wherein 2 sets of deep well turbine-pumps driven by 5 H. P. oil-engine have been installed. The water is pumped directly into the cistern-*cum*-standpost at village Tibdi through 3″ R. C. C. rising main. This scheme has been completed at a total cost of Rs. 0.71 lakhs.

Future Plans—In order to assess the exact magnitude of the problem of drinking water in the rural areas, a survey was made by the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Gujarat, between 1963-65. As a result, two investigation divisions called the Rural Water Supply Investigation Division were started at Broach and Rajkot in 1963. Amreli district is placed under the Rajkot Division. According to the survey,[1] the villages in the State have been grouped into four broad categories, *viz.*, (1) difficult and scarcity areas, (2) specially backward class areas, (3) areas with unsafe and unwholesome water supply and (4) areas with inadequate water supply. On the basis of this grouping, Government proposes to make arrangements for supply of drinking water to the following villages, in the district :

(i) 15 villages of Rajula (3), Jafrabad (5), Lilia (1), Amreli (1), Babra (4) and Kodinar (1) talukas/mahal classified as difficult and scarcity areas, drinking water will be provided at an estimated cost of Rs. 9.60 lakhs;

(ii) No village has been declared as a specially backward class area in this district.

(iii) 24 villages of Babra (2), Kunkavav (2), Kodinar (3), Jafrabad (2), Rajula (3), Khambha (4), Dhari (4), Amreli (3) and Lathi (1) talukas/mahal, where unsafe and unwholesome water supply will be made drinkable at an estimated cost of Rs. 8.75 lakhs; and

(iv) 139 villages of Amreli (14), Kunkavav-Vadia (20), Rajula (20), Lilia (17), Babra (21), Lathi, Damnagar (29), Dhari (5), Khambha (3), Jafrabad (6) and Kodinar (4) talukas/mahal which have inadequate water supply drinking water will be provided at an approximate cost of Rs. 76.46 lakhs.

The detailed plans and estimates for villages grouped as difficult and scarcity areas in the district have been prepared by the Division and those for villages in category of inadequate water supply are under preparation as per Government policy according to which water supply schemes in the groups (i) and (iv) are to be executed in the Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plans, while those under the groups (ii) and (iii) are to be executed thereafter.

1. Public Health Circle, Ahmedabad, *Preliminary Project Report on Rural Water Supply Schemes of Gujarat State*, (1965).

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Social services to a great extent owe their development to the Welfare State. Under the British regime, the State considered itself responsible primarily for the maintenance of law and order and collection of revenue. The need for social services arose with the complexity of the social and economic structure brought about by the mechanisation of industry for welfare of the work-people and the weaker sections. Intensive activity in the field of social welfare has been a marked feature of public life since Independence to achieve the goal of the socialistic pattern of society.

Social services which form the subject matter of this chapter include labour welfare, prohibition, advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes and public trusts.

LABOUR WELFARE

In the past, need for labour legislation did not arise, as there were no labour problems. In former times, the production of goods was usually confined to the household, where craftsmen worked with the help of family members. Even where hired labour was employed, the relations between the employer and the employee were cordial giving no occasion either for regulating their relations or conditions of work. With the advent of mechanisation, the former handicrafts were hamstrung and made way for medium and large scale factories. The former self-employed craftsmen were thus transformed into ordinary wage earners. With the increasing pace of industrialisation and urbanisation, the position of workers became less secure and more hazardous. Problems such as fatal accidents, insecurity of work, insanitary and unhygienic working conditions, slums, unemployment, etc., became acute. Government had, therefore, to undertake measures to regulate the employer-employee relations, and to ensure fair wages for alleviating conditions and prospects of the work-people.

Labour Welfare Measures—"The beginnings of labour legislation in India go back to the thirties of the last century when immediately after the abolition of slavery, various British colonies turned to India as a source of cheap labour, and considerable numbers of Indians began to emigrate as labourers under contracts of various types. As a result, the Government of India found it necessary to legislate for the regulation of the recruitment, forwarding and employment of Indian emigrants under the indenture system......"[1]. This legislation had a great influence upon the development of labour legislation in India.

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1. I. L. O. *Labour Legislation in India*, 1957, p. 1.

During the time of the ex-Baroda State, labour legislation comprising the Trade Disputes Act, the Trade Unions Act, the Factories Act, the Payment of Wages Act, etc., was in force in Amreli. On the integration of the Baroda State into the Bombay State in 1949, the labour legislation then in force in the Bombay State was applied to the district.

Labour Legislation—The following important labour laws are in force in the Amreli district :—

(1) the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923

(2) the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926

(3) the Employment of Children Act, 1938

(4) the Payment of Wages Act, 1936

(5) the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946

(6) the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946

(7) the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947

(8) the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948

(9) the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948

(10) the Factories Act, 1948

(11) the Minimum Wages Act, 1948

(12) the Employees' Provident Funds Act, 1952

(13) the Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1953

(14) the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1955

(15) the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act, 1961

(16) the Gujarat Smoke Nuisances Act, 1963 and

(17) the Payment of Bonus Act, 1965.

The other labour laws in force in the district include :

(1) the Indian Boilers Act, 1923
(2) the Mines Act, 1952
(3) the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961.
(4) the Bidi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966, and
(5) the Employment Exchanges (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act, 1969

It may be noted at the outset that the Amreli district has no industrial development of any magnitude. Compared to the neighbouring districts of Bhavnagar or Rajkot, it is very much backward as far as industrial development is concerned. As such, problems of labour like industrial disputes, workmen's compensation, trade union movement, etc., are few and far between. For the same reason, the enforcement of various labour laws does not create complexities as in other districts.

Workmen's Compensation—The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 was made applicable to Amreli district in 1952. It provides to the disabled workers and their dependents who sustained injuries and died in the course of their work, payment of monetary compensation according to the nature of accident and the average monthly wages earned by the workers. The following statement shows the number of cases registered, decided and pending under the Workmen's Compensation Act, between 1964 and 1967 :

Workmen's Compensation

Year	Cases pending at the beginning of the year	Cases instituted	Cases disposed	Cases pending at the end of the year
1	2	3	4	5
1964 ..	2	4	5	1
1965 ..	1	11	7	5
1966 ..	5	8	9	4
1967 ..	4	5	6	3

Source :
Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation (Civil Judge, Senior Division), Amreli.

The compensation paid to workers increased from Rs. 500 in 1964 to Rs. 29,600 in 1965 and Rs. 48,990 in 1966 but came down to Rs. 5,450 in 1967.

The Indian Factories Act and other Enactments—The erstwhile Baroda State had enacted its own Factories Act in 1913 based on similar legislation in British India. The main feature of the Act was to limit for the first time the hours of work of adult workers in textile mills. After integration, the Factories Act of 1948 was applied to Amreli in 1949. The Act lays down the minimum requirements regarding the health, safety and general welfare of workers and fixes their working hours besides providing for specific welfare measures such as washing facilities, canteens, first-aid appliances, etc. The Indian Trade Unions Act of 1926 as amended in 1964 gives a legal status to the registered trade unions and lays down their rights and liabilities. Both these Acts are dealt with at length in Chapter V—Industries.

The Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, which provides for the settlement of labour disputes through conciliation, adjudication or arbitration was applied to Amreli in 1949. The conciliation officers appointed under the Act, try to settle the industrial disputes arising in their jurisdiction and where a settlement by conciliation is not possible, the dispute is referred to a Court of Enquiry or Industrial Tribunal for adjudication. The number of complaints registered in the district under this Act was 10 during the year 1967. The Act provides for restrictions on strikes and lockouts declared during the pendency of conciliation or adjudication proceedings.

Minimum Wages—The two important spheres of the welfare of working classes where labour legislation has made notable contribution are wages and social security. After the integration of the ex-Baroda State into the Indian Union, steps were taken to improve the standard of living of workers by applying the Minimum Wages Act of 1948. The minimum rates of wages were fixed by the Bombay Government for employment of agricultural labourers. Later on, workers in oil mills, tanneries and leather manufactury, public motor transport, stone-breaking or stone-crushing, road construction, building operations, tobacco (including *bidi*-making), local authorities, shops or commercial establishments, rice mills, flour mills, etc., were brought under the purview of this Act. The provisions of the Act were also applied to residential hotels, restaurants and printing presses by the Gujarat Government in the year 1965. The details about the application of this Act are already discussed in Chapter V—Industries.

The Shops and Establishments Act—The provisions of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948 were first applied to the Rajula town in 1956. In 1958, areas under Amreli Municipality were brought under the purview of the Act. It was subsequently applied to Bagasara and Kodinar in 1960 and Jafrabad in 1961. The Act limits the hours of work in shops and commercial establishments and provides for a paid weekly holiday, besides prohibiting employment of any child below 12.

Maternity Benefits—The Maternity Benefit Act, 1929 was made applicable to this district in 1949. The Act as amended subsequently regulates the employment of women for certain periods before and after child-birth and provides maternity benefits on the basis of average wage for a fixed period of 12 weeks of which not more than 6 weeks should precede delivery. This Act covered 64 factories employing 257 females in 1968.

Provident Fund—The Employees' Provident Funds Act was applied to Amreli town in the year 1952. Till 31st December, 1967, it covered 25 establishments employing 2,406 persons. Out of them, 2,151 contributed to the Provident Fund. The following statement gives distribution of establishments, employees and subscribers by industry.

Provident Fund Scheme, 1967

Sl. No.	Industry	No. of establishments	No. of employees	No. of subscribers
1.	Textiles	2	67	64
2.	Edible Oil and Fats..	14	83	44
3.	Banks	1	99	93
4.	Electrical Manufacturing and General Engineering	2	229	201
5.	Electricity	1	..	..
6.	Cement	1	973	923
7.	Sugar	1	855	769
8.	Salt Industries	2	80	57
9.	Trading and Commercial Establishments..	1	20	..
	Total	25	2,406	2,151

Source : Regional Provident Fund Commissioner, Ahmedabad

The above statistics indicate that the provident fund scheme has become popular.

Administrative Set-up—All matters dealing with labour in the whole State fall within the administrative control of the Education and Labour Department of the Government of Gujarat At the State level, the Commissioner of Labour, Ahmedabad, looks after the machinery functioning at various centres in the State. He has under him one Deputy Commissioner of Labour, 10 Assistant Commissioners (8 at Ahmedabad, and 1 each at Baroda and Rajkot) and 25 Government Labour Officers, 13 at Ahmedabad, 2 each at Surat and Rajkot and 1 each at Bulsar, Baroda, Nadiad, Mehsana, Jamnagar, Porbandar, Bhavnagar and Ukai.

The various labour laws are enforced by different officers headquartered at different places. No special officer is headquartered at Amreli for enforcement of any of the laws mentioned above. The district is placed in charge of the Labour Officer at Bhavnagar. He ensures that provisions of various labour laws are effectively enforced in the district.

The Factories Act, 1948, the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, the Maternity Benefit Act, 1961, and the Employment of Children Act, 1938 are enforced by the Factory Inspectorate headed by the Chief Inspector of Factories and assisted at the district level by the Factory Inspectors. The

Junior Inspector of Factories at Junagadh looks after the enforcement of these Acts in Amreli. The Assistant Commissioner of Labour Welfare at Rajkot, looks after the welfare activities in this district under the supervision of the Welfare Commissioner, Gujarat Labour Welfare Board, Ahmedabad.

The Industrial Tribunal with headquarters at Ahmedabad has been constituted after the formation of the State of Gujarat. It deals with various cases arising out of Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 as well as under other statutory labour Acts. The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Amreli works *ex-officio* as Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation in Amreli district and decides compensation payable to those workers who have sustained injuries while on duty. The Employees' Provident Fund Act is being administered by the Regional Provident Fund Commissioner, Ahmedabad, appointed by the Central Government.

Labour Welfare Centres—No labour welfare centres have been established in Amreli district, as the number of industrial workers is less.

PROHIBITION

In accordance with the Directive Principles of the State Policy on prohibition, total prohibition is operative all over the Gujarat State. The laws relating to prohibition in force at present in Gujarat State are: (1) the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949; (2) the Bombay Opium Smoking Act, 1936, (3) the Bombay Drugs Control Act, 1959; (4) the Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930; (5) the Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955, and (6) the Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955.

The import, export, transport, purchase, possession, use, consumption and manufacture of intoxicants are prohibited in the State except under a licence or permit. The Act, however, provides for the grant of permits for the possession, use and consumption of foreign liquor by foreigners, tourists, privileged personages, visitors and those requiring liquor either for medical purposes or on grounds of health. The manufacture, sale, consumption, etc., of country liquor is not permitted except for sacramental purposes. Permits for sacramental wine required by Jews, Christians and Parsis for religious purposes are granted in small quantities only. Licences and permits for the possession and use of alcohol for industrial, educational, medical and research purposes are also granted.

Objectives and Working of the Prohibition Laws—The legislation in respect of prohibition is brought into force primarily with a view to

eliminating the drink and drug vice from the State. It also aims at raising the standard of living of the people besides rehabilitating the home life of the addicts.

The work of enforcement of prohibition is entrusted to the police in the district in addition to their other normal duties. There was no change in the pattern of the prohibition policy and administration till the introduction of the Panchayats Act in April, 1963. The State Government has constituted a District Prohibition Committee to advise the district administration in the matter of grant of licences under the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949. The work relating to prohibition propaganda along with the departmental *sanskar kendras* in the areas other than the municipal areas with population over 20,000 persons has been transferred to the Panchayats. The Social Welfare Committees of the District and Taluka Panchayats and the Education Committees of the Village Panchayats now look after prohibition propaganda within their respective jurisdictions. The District Prohibition Committee also co-ordinates the activities of Panchayats, Prohibition and Police Departments.

Prohibition Offences—The number of offences detected in the district during the year 1967-68 was 488 of which 228 related to liquor, 9 to hemp-drugs and 3 to opium. The cases detected were mainly for illicit distillation, possession or for other miscellaneous offences against the *Abkari* laws. 246 cases of convicted drunkenness were recorded in the district during that year. Prohibition offences recorded in the district between 1961-62 and 1967-68 are given in the following statement :—

Prohibition Offences

Year	Illicit import, export, possession and distillation of liquor	Drunkenness	Miscellaneous	Opium	Hemp drugs	Total
1961-62 ..	124	..	..	3	1	128
1962-63 ..	70	59	5	3	4	141
1963-64 ..	53	111	4	7	1	176
1964-65 ..	80	150	3	4	2	239
1965-66 ..	146	170	4	3	2	325
1966-67 ..	213	170	20	2	7	412
1967-68 ..	228	246	2	3	9	488

Source : Director of Prohibition and Excise, Gujarat State, Ahmedabad.

Benefits of Prohibition—The beneficient effects of nearly two decades of the prohibition policy are now visible in the general welfare of the

people. Prohibition has proved a great boon to the poorer sections of the people. A large majority of backward class people who were addicted to drink, have given up the habit of drink and they now lead happier and healthier lives. Their standard of living has improved and they have been able to pay up old debts. The efficiency and economic condition of industrial workers have improved appreciably. Prohibition has resulted in lesser family tensions, better and more cordial relations at home, greater and more proper care of the children, and general peace and goodwill among those classes of people who were once noted for drinking and misbehaviour. It has thus proved to be not only a social reform but an important achievement as well by bringing about social and economic betterment of the addicts who mostly belong to the backward strata of society.

Administrative Set-up—The administrative head of the Prohibition and Excise Department, Gujarat State, is designated as the Director of Prohibition and Excise who has his headquarters at Ahmedabad. At the district level, there is one District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, who is assisted by two Sub-Inspectors His duties are to administer laws regarding prohibition and excise, to issue licences and permits and to collect excise on liquor and alcoholic medicines. They also carry out prohibition propaganda in the municipal areas of the district. In non-municipal areas, this work is done by the Panchayats.

BACKWARD CLASSES

There are certain weaker sections of population in every part of the country, who because of geographical, social or economic factors, have not been able to establish or maintain relations or contacts with other sections of society and in the result, have not been able to get benefit of various developmental activities of the Government. Their educational progress is slow and their level of living is low. They are backward socially as well as economically. Some of the castes suffer from the social stigma of untouchability, some live in forest or *nes* areas, and some live a nomadic life, and are sometimes engaged in anti-social activities. They are deprived of the direct benefits of various welfare activities of the Government because of their isolation and various handicaps from which they suffer.

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The following castes in the district are notified as Scheduled Castes under the President's Order No. G. R. O. 2477-A, dated the 29th October, 1956: (1) Bawa (Dhedh) or Dhedh Sadhu (2) Bangi or Rukhi (3) Chamadiya (4) Chamar, Naliya or Rohit (5) Dangashiya (6) Garmatang (7) Garoda

(8) Hadi (9) Meghwal (10) Senva (11) Shemaliya (12) Thori (13) Turi (14) Turi-Barot or Dhed-Barot and (15) Vankar, Dhedh or Antyaj.

The Scheduled Tribes in Amreli district are Siddi and Bavera who are found only in Jafrabad.

After Independence, under the impact of the Five Year Plans and social legislation the condition of Harijans has improved considerably both economically and socially. In addition to these measures which are in force in Gujarat, activities designed to bring home to the general public the evils of untouchability, are also undertaken by the celebration of Harijan-week, award of prizes to villages doing outstanding work in the removal of untouchability, grant-in-aid to voluntary agencies working for the eradication of untouchability, etc. The general attitude of the people towards Harijans has also changed for the better, more so in towns than in villages. They are treated on a par with other members of society in public functions or places of entertainment. Their children are now admitted, without discrimination, to schools and colleges. They can get the highest position in the state and public bodies. Gradually, they are being accepted in the society and the former handicaps from which they suffered are slowly but surely disappearing. Their housing condition has appreciably improved as a result of various schemes sponsored by the Government and local self-governing bodies As will be seen later, their economic condition has also improved due to various concessions given by the State to overcome the handicaps from which they suffered in the past.

Advancement of Backward Classes—Prior to Independence, the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes suffered from many disabilities. The untouchability complex prevailed among caste Hindus to a large extent inspite of the efforts of social and political workers. It must be said to the credit of the former Baroda State that it made sincere attempts to improve their conditions. The social disabilities were accompanied by wide economic and cultural disabilities. Opportunities for betterment were practically denied. Other Backward Classes such as Ahir, Charan, etc., though economically and culturally backward, did not suffer from these disabilities to the same extent. Special measures were undertaken to spread education amongst the Backward Classes, which are dealt with later.

Antyaja Schools—In the nineteenth century under the Baroda regime, when it was not possible to provide education to Harijan children along with the children of the caste Hindus, separate schools and hostels for them were opened by the Baroda State. In 1891-92, a special school for Harijans was opened in Amreli, where free education was imparted with free boarding, clothing and lodging facilities. About a hundred students

were admitted in the school. Scholarships amounting to Rs. 45 each were awarded to students on merits. The school was closed in 1897 and in its place separate schools known as *antyaja* schools were opened at a number of centres.

Similarly separate boarding houses for them were also opened. One *antyaja* boarding house was opened at Amreli, which admitted 30 children who were provided free lodging, boarding and clothing. Later, when the public opinion was influenced by the teachings of Mahatma Gandhi, segregation of the Harijan students in separate *antyaja* schools was abolished in 1932. As a result, most of these separate schools were closed. The Scheduled Castes and other Backward Class students were admitted into all public schools and treated on the same level as other students. Scholarships were awarded to *antyaja* children in the primary and secondary schools in the Baroda State.

Because of their poverty, improvidence and ignorance, the backward class people obtained loans from money-lenders on hypothecation of their lands. As they had no repaying capacity, the lands so alienated later, passed into the hands of money-lenders, and the backward class people became landless. In order to remedy this situation, during the Baroda regime, the Backward Classes Protection Lands Act of 1938 was enacted. The Act prohibited alienation of lands of backward classes to non-backward classes including money-lenders except on an annual lease. Such lands could be alienated with the permission of the Suba (Sub-Collector) provided the land was to be transferred to a person of the backward class community. If any land was alienated against this rule, the Naib-Suba was empowered to restore it to the backward class persons. Since restrictions on transfer curtailed credit of the Backward Classes, co-operative societies were organised to finance them on the security of lands of the backward classes.

Apart from this economic measure, legislation was undertaken by the Baroda State to remove the social disabilities of these classes. All Government temples and public wells were thrown open for Harijans in Baroda under the Social Disabilities Removal Act of 1939. It would also be pertinent to note here that the Baroda State had deputed members of the depressed class students abroad for higher studies and the late Dr. Ambedkar was one of them to be sent in 1913 A. D.[1] Dr. Ambedkar was also the first Harijan member to be nominated to the Baroda State Legislative Council.

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1 Deshbandhu M. S. L. Gowda, *Economic and Political Life in Baroda or Bhagyanagar Raj*, (1944), p. 42.

Welfare Schemes—After Independence, the Government took concerted measures for ameliorating the conditions of the Backward Classes. Various measures for their social and economic uplift were undertaken. During the First Plan, emphasis was laid on providing them facilities for education as ignorance and want of proper education primarily led to their backwardness. In the Second Plan, besides continuing these facilities, assistance was provided to the Backward Classes to enable them to learn their hereditary arts and crafts and to improve their economic condition. For the training of hereditary artisans two peripatetic schools, *viz.*, a Dyeing and Printing School and a Wool Weaving School were started in this district during the First Plan. A Tailoring School was also started during the Second Plan. Lands were given to these classes at nominal or no price and loans advanced for construction of houses. The Government also accorded priority to Harijans in the allotments of waste lands for cultivation. Private agencies were provided with subsidies to undertake construction or extension of hostels to accommodate backward class students. Public wells for drinking purposes were constructed in rural areas for the backward population. The schemes implemented during the Third Plan for the welfare of Backward Classes can broadly be classified into measures for (a) educational and cultural uplift (b) economic uplift and (c) health, housing and others.

Educational and Cultural Uplift—Out of total expenditure of Rs. 2.68 lakhs incurred in the district for the welfare of the Backward Classes during the Third Plan period, an amount of Rs. 1.57 lakhs was spent on educational and cultural uplift. Since education is the foundation of the people's progress Government has all along been giving due consideration to the need for promoting education amongst the Backward Classes. By and large, State assistance consists of payment of tuition fees, examination fees and lumpsum stipends for books and scholarships to primary, high school and post - S. S. C. students. The State also gives grants for the construction of hostels for the Backward Class students.[1]

Measures for Economic Uplift—A majority of the Backward Class persons are either agriculturists, landless labourers or artisans. The programme for the economic uplift of the Backward Classes covers the following schemes:

(1) Agricultural schemes for financial assistance for purchase of plough-bullocks and implements, and for minor irrigation and soil conservation.
(2) Financial assistance to cottage industries and professions.
(3) Financial assistance to forest and co-operative societies.

1. Details of these schemes will be found in Chapter XV—Education and Culture.

Under the schemes relating to Agriculture, financial assistance is granted to all backward classes at 50 per cent interest-free loan and 50 per cent subsidy for the purchase of oil engines and pumps, agricultural implements, bullocks, bullock carts, fertilizers, etc., and construction of wells for irrigation purposes. A grant upto Rs. 400 per acre for contour-bunding is also given. Further, the Backward Class members are given high priority in the allotment of waste lands for cultivation. Under another scheme, loans and subsidies subject to a maximum limit of Rs. 500 per individual are granted to all Backward Class people for the purchase of improved implements required for their professions or for starting cottage industries like tailoring, carpentry, weaving, toy-making, leather industries, etc. The Industrial Home at Rajula gives the Backward Class students training in carpentry, tailoring, weaving, etc. For the economic uplift of Backward Classes in the district an amount of Rs. 53,000 was spent during the Third Plan Period.

Health, Housing and Others—Under this category, there are five schemes meant for the Scheduled Castes only, namely, construction of new wells and repairs of old ones, medical aid, eradication of the practice of carrying night soil as headload, provision of house sites and subsidy for housing of sweepers and scavangers The Backward Classes in general are given financial assistance in form of subsidy for construction of their tenements. Various types of co-operative societies are given financial assistance for share capital, management, tools and equipment. Free legal assistance is given to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes in criminal and civil proceedings, as it was found that due to their poor economic condition, they were not able to go to the court to protect their rights. The amount spent during the Third Five Year Plan under this scheme was Rs. 53,200.

Reservation of seats for Backward Classes—It is now admitted that nobody becomes an untouchable by birth or on account of his following a particular avocation. The prevalence of untouchability is an evil that divides society and tends to retard its development

Before Independence, social welfare activities were restricted to some constructive workers, a few service-minded societies and Christian missionaries, and no special efforts were made by Government, or the public at large for the amelioration of the conditions of the Backward Classes. It was Mahatma Gandhi, who awakened the social conscience of this country by stressing the need and urgency of promoting the welfare of those disadvantageous classes, who had been hitherto neglected and subjected to social tyranny. The Baroda Government also felt the need of initiating measures for their uplift and amelioration and opened the Backward Classes Department in 1932.

The Directive Principles of State Policy lay down that the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in particular, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. The Fundamental Rights embodied in the Constitution enjoin abolition of untouchability and forbid its practice in any form. The enforcement of any disability arising out of "untouchability" has been made penal. To ensure equality of opportunity for all citizens in matters relating to employment, it has been laid down that no citizen shall, on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, descent, place of birth, residence or any of them be ineligible for, or discriminated against, in respect of any employment or office under the State.

After the integration of the former Baroda State into the Bombay State in 1949, the Government of Bombay fixed the following minimum percentages for the reservation of seats for Backward Classes in accordance with the provisions made under Article 335 of the Constitution of India:

Name of Services	Percentage of vacancies to be reserved
(1) All Class I and II Services and posts thereunder	12½
(2) Class III Services	
(i) Scheduled Castes	6
(ii) Scheduled Tribes	7
(iii) Other Backward Classes	9
(3) Class IV Services	
(i) Scheduled Castes	7
(ii) Scheduled Tribes	9
(iii) Other Backward Classes	11

These concessions were continued by the Government of Gujarat till 1969 when the following percentages for reservation of seats were specified:

Sl. No.	Category	Classification of service and percentage of reservation		
		Class I & II	Class III	Class IV
1.	Scheduled Castes	5	7	7
2.	Scheduled Tribes	10	14	14

Administrative Set-up—Before the introduction of the Panchayati Raj in 1963, activities for the welfare of Backward Classes were carried on by the Social Welfare Department which had under it a special wing for the Backward Classes welfare. The departmental head was designated as the Director of Social Welfare, who had under him in his office a Deputy

Director, a Personal Assistant, one Officer-in-charge of the Backward Classes and Tribal Welfare and two Social Welfare Officers in addition to the District Social Welfare Officers at the district headquarters. This position was radically changed on account of the introduction of the Panchayati Raj with effect from 1st April, 1963 when almost all the welfare schemes of non-technical nature were transferred to the District Panchayats with necessary staff. Thus, every District Panchayat in the State (except Dangs District) was allotted the post of a Social Welfare Officer to implement various welfare schemes in the Panchayat areas. As the work of implementation of welfare schemes for the Backward Classes in municipal areas was not transferred to the District Panchayats, a separate machinery was created for the purpose and six offices of Welfare Officers (State) as distinguished from those under the Panchayats were opened in municipal areas of the State with their headquarters at Ahmedabad, Mehsana, Surat, Baroda, Amreli and Rajkot.

In the Amreli district, there are two officers for social welfare. *viz.*, (1) Backward Class Officer under District Panchayat, Amreli for Panchayat areas and (2) Backward Class Officer (State) for the municipal areas. Jurisdiction of the latter extends to the municipal areas of three districts, *viz.*, Amreli, Junagadh and Bhavnagar.

In January, 1965, the Backward Classes Welfare wing was separated from the Directorate of Social Welfare and became an independant Directorate of Backward Classes Welfare. With effect from 1st September, 1968 the two Directorates of Backward Classes Welfare and Social Welfare were again amalgamated into one and the new Directorate was named the Directorate of Social Welfare. The post of the Director of Backward Class Welfare was abolished with effect from that date. The Social Welfare Directorate was bifurcated in May, 1969 and new directorate was formed under the name of Directorate of Harijan and Adivasi Welfare. From March 1970, the Directorate is redesignated as Directorate of Social Welfare. The Directorate now looks after the welfare activities of these classes including the Nomadic Tribes and Denotified Tribes in the entire State.

Public Trusts and Charitable Endowments

It is evident from the available historical records that supervision over the affairs of public institutions of religious and charitable nature is not a modern phenomenon. At least from 300 B. C. onwards. the State authorities have been found to have interested themselves in the affairs of religious and charitable institutions and exercised supervision and control over them besides providing means for their maintenance and upkeep.

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1 *Gujarat 1967*, (A Reference Annual), Government of Gujarat, p. 297.

Charitable Trusts

The history of ahe management of the charitable trusts under the former Baroda State may be broadly divided into the following periods:

(i) the period upto 1904 under the Settlement Department,
(ii) the period from 1904 to 1948 under the Devasthan Branch of the Revenue Department, and
(iii) the post-integration period (1949 onwards).

(i) The Settlement Department had a general charge of these institutions. It issued necessary instructions to the district officers as to the manner in which the supervision was to be exercised. In November 1891, the Settlement Commissioner framed rules for maintenance and audit of the accounts and preparation of the list of the property of the public institutions. The Village *Panch* and the visiting State officers had to certify that the services in these public institutions were properly performed; and only on receipt of such certificates these institutions were granted the cash allowance by the State.

(ii) In 1904, the general supervision of these institutions was entrusted to the Revenue Department (Devasthan Branch). The Devasthan Branch dealt with matters relating to the public trusts and charitable endowments. For the purpose of supervision such institutions were divided under three main classes, *viz.*, (i) temples and other charitable religious institutions which were either managed and maintained directly by the Government; (ii) public institutions (*Sarvajanik Sansthas*) which were managed by individuals with the State-aid in the form of *barkhali* or alienated land, *inam* villages or cash and (iii) public institutions which received no State-aid. Of these the Government was obviously more directly concerned with the first two categories. Those institutions, which were managed and maintained directly by the Government were known as *khanagi devasthans*. These were founded by the ruling princes or their relations. There were 19 such *devasthans* in the whole Baroda State, but there was none such in Amreli. These were looked after by the *Khanagi* Department till 1904 when their management was transferred first to the Settlement Department and afterwards to the Devasthan Branch of the Revenue Department. There were 28 religious institutions in the whole of Baroda State under the direct State management; of these, only one, the Nagnath temple, was at Amreli. For the control and management of this institution a manager was appointed who was under the supervision of the respective Vahivatdars and Subas.

In the year 1904-05, the Government passed two Acts called (i) "*Sarvajanik Sanstha Nibandh*" and (ii) "*Dharmadaya-Sarvajanik Milkat Nibandh*". The main object of these Acts was to ensure that the management of the

public institutions was conducted for the benefit of the public. Government exercised supervision and control over those institutions which received assistance from the State. In the case of others, the State required that all accounts of property should be properly maintained and that any serious abuse noticed had to be referred to the Civil Court.

The State had created three Devasthan Funds in 1909-10. These were (i) Repair Fund (ii) Reserve Fund and (iii) General Fund. The Repair Fund was meant for the repairs of the buildings of such institutions. The Reserve Fund was meant to meet unforseen contigent expenses. Lastly, the General Fund was intended for religious and charitable purposes of public utility such as establishment of schools for imparting religious instructions and for the maintenance of the disabled persons.

(iii) After integration in 1949, it was noticed that there was no centralised supervision over public trusts in the whole State. Central and State laws were enacted for State supervision over public trusts in the former Bombay State The Bombay Public Trusts Registration Act, 1935 was applicable to public trusts existing for the benefit of Hindu community; the Musalman Wakf (Bombay Amendment) Act, 1935 was applicable to the Muslim Wakfs only and the Parsi Public Trusts Registration Act, 1936, regulated public trusts existing for the benefit of the Parsi community.

The central enactments applicable to all the public trusts in the State were the Charitable and Religious Trusts Act, 1920. and the provisions of Sections 92 and 93 of the Civil Procedure Code. Thus, the legal provisions were different for different communities. In 1950, the Bombay Public Trusts Act, 1950, was enacted in order to bring about uniformity in regulation of all these community-wise trusts. Now, the religious and charitable trusts of all communities—Hindu, Parsi, Muslim and others—are uniformly governed by this Act. This Act has many new features. Unlike the previous enactments, it applies to all communities, in keeping with the principles laid down in the Constitution about the uniformity of civil law, and provides for a uniform machinery for exercising supervision and control by the State over the management of Public Trusts. The definition of 'Public Trusts' has been widened so as to include societies registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860. The Act defines public trust as "express or constructive trust for either a public religious or charitable purpose or both and includes a temple, a *math*, wakf, a *dharmada* or any other religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860." The Act provides for the establishment of special machinery for dealing with all matters concerning the administation and management of public trusts, and working under the administrative control of the Legal Department. It

provides for compulsory registration of all public trusts and for the appointment of a Charity Commissioner for the State and Deputy and Assistant Charity Commissioners for regions and sub-regions into which the State is divided for administrative convenience. The Amreli district falls under the Rajkot region and is looked after by the Deputy Charity Commissioner, Rajkot.

The total number of trusts registered in the district was 1308 till 31st December, 1967 of which 901 were Hindu trusts, 169 were Muslim trusts and 238 others. Some of the important among them are:

(1) The Amreli Kapol Vidyottejak Fund Trust, Amreli (2) The Forward School Trust, Amreli (3) Shri Liliya Mahal Kelavani Mandal Trust, Liliya, (4) Shree Samasta Brahman Mandal Vidvarthi Bhavan, Amreli (5) Shri Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya, Amreli (6) The Amreli Panjrapole Gaushala, Amreli (7) The Amreli Kelavani Mandal, Amreli

(1) *The Amreli Kapol Vidyottejak Fund Trust, Amreli*—The trust, the oldest existing one in Amreli, was established in 1909 for the purpose of providing books and tuition fees to poor students of the Kapol Bania caste. It was registered as a public trust in the year 1961. The trust started the Kapol Boarding School in 1909 and the Kapol Balashram in 1919. The trust runs a boarding house, a *vyayam mandir*, and a library and reading room. It has a reserve fund of Rs. 1.75 lakhs.

(2) *The Forward School Trust, Amreli*—Established in 1954, the trust runs two schools—a primary and a secondary at Amreli which provide education to more than 3,000 students. It has no reserve fund. It was registered as a public trust in 1954.

(3) *The Liliya Mahal Kelavani Mandal Trust, Liliya*—The trust was established in 1934 by the efforts of the leading social workers of the district. It runs a high school named 'Amratba Vidyalaya' in Liliya. It was registered as a public trust in 1965.

(4) *The Samasta Brahman Mandal Vidyarthi Bhavan Trust, Amreli*—The trust was established in 1920 with the main purpose of spreading educational facilities among the Brahmin students. It runs a boarding house for students. The trust has a reserve fund of Rs. 30,000. It was registered as a public trust in 1953.

(5) *Shri Girdharbhai Sangrahalaya Trust Amreli*—The trust was created in 1954 from public contributions in memory of the late Shri Girdharbhai Dhanji Mehta, a well known social worker of Amreli and a municipal

member for over 30 years. The trust runs a museum in Amreli. It has reserve fund of about Rs. 80,000. It was registered as a public trust in 1958.

(6) *The Amreli Panjrapole Gaushala Trust, Amreli*—The trust was established in the year 1953, and registered as a public trust in the year 1953. It manages a *panjrapole* and a *gaushala* at Amreli. It has a total reserve fund of over Rs. 1 lakh.

(7) *The Amreli Kelavani Mandal Trust, Amreli*—The trust was established in 1942 and registered as a public trust in 1953. It runs a primary and a secondary school in Amreli. It has its own building.

PART VII

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Public Life

Organised public life, as is understood to-day, is a recent phenomenon. By and large, rulers did not make efforts to organise public life and encourage public participation in the affairs of the State. Maharaja Sayaji Rao Gaekwad felt that the best men were not returned to the Village Panchayats District Boards and the Dhara Sabha, and that the work turned out by them was not satisfactory.[1] As a result, public participation in matters public was not encouraged till the second quarter of the present century. The public opinion, therefore, could not make any impact on the administration of the State.

Before Sayaji Rao III succeeded to the Baroda *gadi*, the law and order situation was not satisfactory. Corruption, abuse of power and jealousy were rampant. By the time Sayaji Rao was invested with full powers, in 1881, order had been restored. But it was thought that the time was not propitious for establishing a popularly elected representative Government. It was considered that for such forms of Government, a much higher level of education and knowledge amongst the masses was necessary.[2] Early in 1938, the Baroda State appointed a representative committee of officials and non-officials to suggest measures for association of the people with the affairs of the State. The Committee in its report recommended that the Dhara Sabha should be enlarged with an elective majority based on a wide territorial franchise and representation. This was because the Dhara Sabha then constituted had very limited powers. According to the recommendations of the Committee, the Dhara Sabha was reconstituted in 1940 under the Government of Baroda Act, 1940. Its strength was increased from 31 to 60 and representation was given to commerce, industries and labour. The reconstitution of the Dhara Sabha was considered a step further in the policy of the Gaekwad rulers of associating people with the administration of the State. The Dhara Sabha was given powers to initiate and pass legislation and to discuss and vote on the budget.

Further, the Baroda State took steps to maintain the village self-Government by associating people with the administration of the village. For this purpose, Panchayats were constituted in all villages, and were entrusted with powers and duties which they had enjoyed by custom and

1. *Shri Sayaji Gaurav Granth*, (Baroda), 1933, pp. 403-404.
2. *Speeches and Addresses of H. H. Sayaji Rao III, Maharaja of Baroda*, 1877-1927, London, (1928), p. 4.

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tradition (Details will be found in the chapter on Local Self-Government). The degree of the people's representation could be gauged from the fact that the Executive Council in Baroda State in 1945-46 consisted of Diwan and 5 Naib-Diwans, two of whom were non-officials with a record of public service and appointed from among the members of the Dhara Sabha. Each member of the council was in charge of a number of departments.

The Praja Mandal of the Baroda State played a very important role in organising public opinion and ventilating grievances of the people. The Praja Mandal was established in 1916 in a meeting held at Navsari. In framing the constitution of the Mandal, Virji Shivdas (father of Shri Mohanlal Virji Patel) and Harilal Govindji played an important role. In view of their services to the State in general and the Amreli district in particular, both of them were awarded the title 'Raj-Ratna'.

In Amreli, the Praja Mandal held three sessions; the first in 1926 under the chairmanship of Shri Ganesh Bhasker Sane, a prominent public worker of Baroda, the second in 1933 under Abbas Tayabji, retired Judge, and the third under the chairmanship of pleader Chhotabhai Zaverbhai Sutaria in 1941. The local unit of the Praja Mandal, Amreli Prantik Parishad organised in 1939, was presided over by Pranlal Thakorlal Munshi, a prominent social worker.

Before integration, the last session of the Praja Mandal was held at Visnagar (Mehsana district) in 1948 under the chairmanship of Shri Jagjivandas Narayan Mehta, where Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta, the former Baroda State Diwan, was also present.

From the foregoing account, it will appear that Amreli and its leaders played an effective role in the constitution and working of the Praja Mandal.

In the *satyagrah* movement of 1930's and the Rajkot *satyagrah* of 1938, Shri Mohanlal Virji and other leaders provided overt and covert assistance to the *satyagrahis*.

After Independence, the public opinion became better organised and more vocal. The fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution encouraged people to express their views freely and fearlessly on matters political, economic and social. People began to realise gradually the importance and value of their views and opinions in the democratic set-up of the State. The popular elections in India whereunder people got right to appoint their own representatives in the State and Union Legislatures induced even the common man to take greater interest in the affairs and working of the governmental organisation. The introduction of the Panchayati Raj in 1963 enabled even the village people to manage their own affairs and actually and actively participate in the implementation of the various developmental programmes under the Five Year Plans.

REPRESENTATION OF THE DISTRICT IN THE STATE AND THE UNION LEGISLATURE

As stated in Chapter-I, after Independence, several changes have taken place in the composition of the district due to reorganisation of districts. Moreover, the district became homogeneous after the reorganisation. For this reason, the areas comprising this district at the time of the General Elections of 1952 and 1957 were included for election purposes under different adjacent constituencies of different districts. In 1952 elections, when Amreli was under the Bombay State, the district was delimited into three constituencies, *viz.*, (1) Amreli-Damnagar (2) Gogha-Kodinar and (3) Okhamandal-Dhari-Khambha for the elections to the Legislative Assembly. For the Parliamentary elections, Amreli district was included in Banaskantha constituency. In the General Elections of 1957, areas under this district formed parts of the following eight different constituencies, *viz.*, Amreli, Vallabhipur, Lathi, Rajula, Dwarka, Talaja, Una and Malia-Hatina. For the parliamentary elections, Amreli district was included under the Girnar Parliamentary constituency. After the formation of the Gujarat State, *i. e.*, both at the time of the General Elections of 1962 and 1967, the district had five single-member constituencies in the Gujarat Vidhan Sabha (the State Legislative Assembly) and one constituency for the Union Parliament (Lok Sabha). To sum up, the shape and the size of the electoral constituencies underwent changes at every election either to the State Legislature or the Parliament to suit the exigencies of administration.

The details of the territorial extent of the Parliamentary and Assembly constituencies are given below :

*Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies**

Sl. No.	Name of Constituency		Extent in terms of Parliamentary/Assembly Constituencies
(a)	Parliamentary Constituency		
1.	Amreli	..	Somnath, Malia, Una, Babra, Lathi, Amreli, Dhari and Kodinar.
(b)	Assembly Constituencies		Territorial extent
1.	Babra	..	Babra and Kunkavav-Vadia talukas.
2.	Lathi	..	Lathi taluka, Lilia mahal and a few villages in Amreli circle.
3.	Amreli	..	Amreli taluka (excluding the villages included in Lathi constituency) and Chalala circle (excluding Khicha and Devla villages) in Dhari taluka.
4.	Dhari-Kodinar (Scheduled Castes)	..	Kodinar taluka ; and Dhari circle and Khicha and Devla villages in Chalala circle in Dhari taluka.
5.	Rajula	..	Rajula taluka ; Jafrabad and Khambha mahals.

*The Gujarat Government Gazette, Vol. VII, No. 13, Part IV-C, dated 31st March, 1966, pp. 558-561.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND ORGANISATIONS

The Congress and the Swatantra are at present (1971) the main political parties in the district. A study of the general election results of 1952, 1957, 1962 and 1967 reveals the relative hold of the various political parties in the district. In the first General Elections of 1952, three political parties, *viz.*, the Congress, the Socialist and the Hindu Mahasabha and several independent candidates contested the elections. The number of valid votes cast was 60,460 or 43.77 per cent of the total electorate of 138,125. All the three seats in the Bombay Legislative Assembly were secured by the Congress. The Parliamentary seat was also secured by the Congress.

In the 1957 General Elections, three political parties, *viz.*, the Congress, the Praja Socialist Party and the Hindu Mahasabha besides independent candidates contested the elections. The strength of the voters was 2,40,726; of these, 1,10,635 or 45.96 per cent were recorded as votes validly polled. All the four seats in the Bombay Legislative Assembly were captured by the Congress. The Parliamentary seat was also retained by the Congress.

In the General Elections of 1962, the contesting parties included the Congress, the Praja Socialist and the Hindu Mahasabha besides non-party independent candidates. The Congress captured all the five seats in the Legislative Assembly as also the Parliamentary seat in the Union Legislature. The percentage of valid voting was 51.15 for the Parliamentary seat and 47.97 for the Assembly seats, considerably higher than in the previous elections.

In the last General Elections of 1967, the contesting parties included the Congress, the Swatantra and the Praja Socialist besides non-party independent candidates. The Congress party captured all the five seats in the Legislative Assembly as also the Parliamentary seat in the Lok Sabha. The percentage of valid voting was 49.69 for the Parliamentary seat and 44.90 for the Assembly seats.

The following statement gives the total number of votes polled during each of the four General Elections for the Central and State Legislatures.

Votes polled in the General Elections

Election year 1	Total No. of electors 2	Total votes polled 3	Percentage of col. 3 to col. 2 4	Total valid votes polled 5	Percentage of col. 5 to col. 2 6	Name of the party 7	Votes polled by the party 8	Percentage to total valid votes polled 9
HOUSE OF THE PEOPLE (LOK SABHA)								
1952*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1957*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1962	418,212	226,282	54.11	213,900	51.15	Congress	139,459	65.20
						Praja Socialist	74,441	34.80
1967	452,378	238,466	52.71	224,785	49.69	Congress	117,812	52.41
						Praja Socialist	68,224	30.35
						Independents	38,749	17.24
STATE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY (VIDHAN SABHA)								
1952	138,125	N. A.	N. A.	60,460	43.77	Congress	34,481	57.03
						Socialist	9,574	15.83
						Hindu Mahasabha	8,010	13.25
						Independents	8,395	13.89
1957	240,726	N. A.	N. A.	110,635	45.96	Congress	79,333	71.71
						Praja Socialist	15,002	13.56
						Hindu Mahasabha	897	0.81
						Independents	15,403	13.92
1962	304,763	156,851	51.47	146,184	47.97	Congress	99,347	67.96
						Praja Socialist	44,568	30.49
						Hindu Mahasabha	505	0.34
						Independents	1,764	1.21
1967	333,467	160,825	48.23	149,713	44.90	Congress	77,984	52.09
						Swatantra	29,181	19.49
						Praja Socialist	31,022	20.72
						Independents	11,526	7.70

N. A.=Not available

* In the General Elections of 1952 and 1957, this district formed part of the Parliamentary constituencies of Banaskantha and Girnar respectively. Hence separate data about the district are not available.

From the foregoing facts and figures, certain trends are discernible during the General Elections from 1952 to 1967. To begin with, although the Congress lost seats in other districts of Gujarat, in this district it captured all the seats of the State Legislature and the Parliament. The Congress party has remained the largest single party because of its vast resources and strong organisational base. Secondly, the Swatantra party grabbed several seats in the State Legislature and the Parliament in other districts in the 1962 General Elections. But, the emergence of the Swatantra party did not affect the position of the Congress in this district. Thirdly, the Congress party won the General Elections without electoral alliances with other parties. It has thereby maintained its distinct identity as a political organisation. Fourthly, there is no increase in the percentage of voting. In 1952, the percentage of valid voting was 43.77; which rose to 44.90 only in 1967. Fifthly, while the Congress has shown a slow but steady decline in other districts, the Congress party in the district has held the fort in all the General Elections. This is because the electoral history of the district is broadly shaped by the political history of Gujarat.

PANCHAYAT ELECTIONS

Since the implementation of the Panchayati Raj in 1963, two elections for the Amreli District Panchayat have been held. The first elections for the District Panchayat were held in 1964. Of the 20 seats for election, 6 were won uncontested. Elections were, therefore, held in the remaining 14 constituencies. The total number of voters in these constituencies were 1,95,736 of whom 46,049 or 23.53 per cent cast their votes.

The second elections for the District Panchayat were held in 1968. Of the 20 seats for election, 6 were again won uncontested. The total number of voters were 2,24,192 of whom only 51,373 or 22.91 per cent exercised their franchise. Thus, inspite of an increase in the number of total voters, the percentage of actual voting was a little less as compared to the previous elections.

NEWSPAPERS

The only daily newspaper published from Amreli is the *Prakash*, which was started in 1953. It has a limited circulation of about 500 copies. Besides, the other Gujarati daily newspapers, the *Jai-Hind*, the *Phoolchhab* and the *Nutan Saurashtra* published from Rajkot, the *Sandesh*, the *Gujarat Samachar* and the *Jansatta* from Ahmedabad, the *Saurashtra Samachar* of Bhavnagar and the *Mumbai Samachar* and the *Janmabhoomi* from Bombay are also fairly widely read in this district. Among the English daily newspapers, the *Indian Express* and the *Times of India* of Ahmedabad are popular among the educated readers. Of the

two news-weeklies the *Nagrik* is published from Amreli and the *Virbhoomi* from Vadia.

Cultural, literary and other periodicals published in the district are dealt with in detail in Chapter XV—Education and Culture.

Voluntary Social Service Organisations

Origin, Growth and Direction—The humanitarian urge to organise voluntary associations to meet the needs of social and cultural uplift of the people is innate. This urge has found greater scope of expression after Independence as a result of popular awakening and the State encouragement in various fields of public activity. Social service in the past was voluntary but not organised in the modern sense of the term functioning through separate organisations and institutions established for varied purposes. The first voluntary institution was started at Amreli in 1918 with a limited purpose of providing medical relief to the poor. It ran a charitable dispensary then known as Shri Amreli Sevak Mandal Davakhana. It was renamed in 1934 as Shri Ratanbai Sevak Mandal Dharmada Davakhana. This dispensary is still popular with the people. The second oldest important institution in the district was started at Jafrabad in 1926 with the object of promoting educational facilities. Known as Shri Jafrabad Kelavani Uttejtak Mandal, it runs several educational and other institutions at Jafrabad. In 1927 was started another important institution -this time in the field of physical education - under the name of Shri Samarth Vyayam Mandir. It attracted many young people to take to physical exercise - a hitherto neglected sphere of youth activity.

Voluntary social service organised by concerted public efforts is, however, a recent phenomenon closely associated with the democratic form of Government promising equal status and opportunities to all sections of society. The field of social service is one where State efforts must be supplemented by close public co-operation to ensure quick results in the working of various schemes sponsored by Government. The welfare of the handicapped and disadvantageous section of society like women, children, the illiterate, the diseased, the disabled and the backward strata of society has been engaging increasing attention of the State and the people. Public spirited persons in all walks of life are anxious to contribute their mite to alleviate human sufferings and promote moral and material well-being of the people. There has been a growing consciousness and desire among them to improve the lot of their fellowmen by organising voluntary social service organisations to raise them in the social and economic scale.

The important voluntary institutions functioning in the district are briefly described below.

INSTITUTIONS OF GENERAL WELFARE

The Amreli Vibhag Kelvani Sangh, Jalia—The institution was established in 1960 for promoting educational activities in rural areas of the Amreli district. It runs five primary schools - one each at Jalia, Mota Ankadia, Sajiavadar, Keriachad and Chital. It also manages the high school at Babapur. It arranges game competitions, study-tours, exhibitions and *shram shibirs* in villages. For the development of physical activities among students, it runs a Vyayam Mandir (gymnasium) at Jalia.

The Bal Kelavani Mandal, Bagasara—The Bal Kelavani Mandal, Bagasara, one of the oldest institutions in Amreli district, was established in 1931. The institution works mainly for the development of children's education. It started its activity by opening a Balmandir at Bagasara in 1931 with 21 children on roll. Since then, its activities have increased manifold and at present, it runs a Chhatralaya, a Khadi centre, a children's library and a Bal Sanskar Darshan (Museum).

The Sarvajanik Kumari Chhatralaya was started in 1932 under the name of 'Harijan Shala' and in 1962 was converted into a Chhatralaya for girls belonging to all communities. Girl students from Backward Classes are, however, given preference in admission.

The institution also runs a museum for children. Divided into 11 sections it gives a pictorial and sculptural view of the historical development of our country. It also runs a library for children and a Khadi centre which provides employment to about 200 families. The Khadi centre produced Khadi worth about Rs. 45,000 in the year 1966-67.

The Jalia Sevak Samaj, Jalia—The Jalia Sevak Samaj was started in 1937 mainly with the object of engaging the younger generation in the constructive social activities. As time passed, its field of activities widened. In the national movement of 1942, the *samaj* provided useful guidance and leadership to the people of Jalia and surrounding villages. In 1956, it started a secondary school, which is now being looked after by the Amreli Vibhag Kelavani Sangh.

The *samaj* runs a Balmandir at Jalia and Khadi centres at Jalia, Sajiavadar, Pithavajal, Mota Ankadia and Vankia villages. It publishes a fortnightly magazine named *Ghadtar* from its own press.

The Jafrabad Kelavani Uttejak Mandal, Jafrabad—The Mandal, one of the oldest in the district, was established in 1926 with the object of promoting educational facilities at Jafrabad. It runs several educational and other institutions named below :

The Parekh and Mehta Vividhlakshi Vidyalaya—This multi-purpose school was started in 1927 and had about 600 students on its roll in 1968-69.

The Sheth Nagardas Juthabhai Shamji Sarvajanik Dispensary and Tapibai Girdharlal Maternity Home—The dispensary was started in 1940 and the maternity home in 1965. It gives free medical treatment to the poor. It has a mobile-van which goes to the nearby villages once every week. It has an indoor patient ward and a pathological laboratory.

The Sheth T. M. Library and Free Reading Room—The library was originally started as far back as 1902 by the late Shri Tribhuvandas Mavjibhai. From 1945 onwards its management has been taken over by the Jafrabad Kelavani Mandal.

The Gangadas Purshottamdas Parekh Vidyarthi Grih—It was started in 1928 to provide lodging and boarding facilities to students without any distinction of caste or creed. At present, it accommodates 100 students. It has its own building.

The Kelvani Mandal has started since 1968, a Kanya Chhatralaya which provides lodging and boarding facilities to about 60 girls.

The Rajula Seva Mandal, Rajula—The Seva Mandal was established in 1943 for promoting educational and social activities in Rajula. It runs a Balmandir, a Mahila Mandal, and a Vyayamshala. It organises cultural programmes, spinning competitions and religious discourses. During famine and scarcity conditions, the Mandal provides meals to general public at nominal rates.

The Sarvoday Saraswati Mandir, Babapur—The Sarvoday Saraswati Mandir was started at village Babapur about 15 kms., from Amreli in 1949 for promoting an all-round development in rural areas. Its main activities relate to (i) education and (ii) agriculture and animal husbandry. It runs a Lokshala (for boys and girls), a Kumar Chhatralaya, a Kanya Chhatralaya, a Mahila Adhyapan Mandir, a high school and a hostel for Backward Class students. Students from different and distant parts of Gujarat come at Babapur to study and stay in this rural institution. In 1969, over 325 students coming from 12 districts of Gujarat were enrolled as students in this institution. It has organised a Fruit Nursery Centre, an Agricultural Experimental Centre and a *gaushala*. The Government has donated to this institution a 100-acre plot to expand its activities.

The institution also organises cultural activities, game competitions, study-tours, etc. The students of this institution have won prizes in many

district-level competitions in games, *ras-garba*, elocution, running, gymnasium, etc. They have also been trained in rifle-shooting. The noteworthy aspect of the working of this institution is the popular co-operation that it has received from the inhabitants of nearby villages. They have readily volunteered to work as labourers in constructing buildings for its school or *chhatralaya*. The institution renders an important service to the people by providing them information and guidance in social and legal matters.

Inspired by the unique service rendered by this institution, the 'Swiss Aid Abroad' donated to it an amount of Rs. 3 lakhs in 1969. The institution is one of the best organised institutions in this district working for the rural reconstruction.

Shri Amreli Pathya Pustak Mandal, Amreli—Shri Amreli Pathya Pustak Mandal or the Book Bank is well-known in Amreli. It was started in the year 1962-63 with a view to providing books to deserving students studying in schools and colleges without any distinction of caste or creed. In the year 1967-68, it supplied books worth over Rs. 21,000 to nearly 3,000 students. The institution has no reserve fund. It receives grants from the District Panchayat and donations from private bodies.

Shri Amreli Panjarapole Gaushala, Amreli—Shri Amreli Panjrapole and Shri Amreli Gaushala were separate institutions in Amreli which were merged in the year 1940 and jointly named as Shri Amreli Panjrapole Gaushala. The institution conducts the following activities :

(1) *Panjarapole*—Where old and discarded cows are maintained.

(2) *Gaushala*—Which maintains 16 milching cows.

(3) *Pipalva grassland*—Where the old and discarded cattle are kept for grazing. The surplus grass is stocked for rainy days. In the year 1968, the institution maintained a total of 67 cattle.

It was registered as a public trust in 1953. It is maintained from public donations.

Shri Ratanbai Sevak Mandal Dharmada Davakhana, Amreli—The Dharmada Davakhana or free dispensary was originally started in 1918, under the name of Shri Amreli Sevak Mandal Davakhana. It supplied free medicines to the poor and charged a nominal amount of 1 anna to others. Soon after its establishment, it became popular among the inhabitants of Amreli and surrounding villages. It also attracted many donors. It, however, did not have its own building till 1934. In 1934, two local philanthropists, Shri Manilal Narandas Desai and Shri Vrajlal Narandas Desai, donated a building for the dispensary. The dispensary was thereafter

named as Shri Ratanbai Sevak Mandal Dharmada Davakhana. It still supplies free medicines to the poor. In 1967, about 35,000 patients from Amreli and surrounding areas took advantage of this dispensary.

WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS

The Adarsh Mahila Mandal, Kodinar—Established in 1959, the Mandal conducts sewing and embroidery classes, and organises competitions for *rangoli* and food recipes.

The Mahila Vikas Mandal, Amreli—The institution was started in 1950 with a view to promoting social, economic and cultural welfare of the women in general. It had 110 members on its roll in 1968. It conducts Balwadis and adult education classes in 8 villages of Amreli taluka. Besides, it runs classes in music, embroidery, sewing and coaching classes for *shalant* and S. S. C. examinations at Amreli. The Mandal organises study tours and sponsors competitions in *garba*, drama, spinning, games, etc. It provides first-aid appliances and guides its members in matters relating to family planning, prohibition and untouchability. It has started, since 1968, a *vikas grih* for providing shelter to the destitute and distressed women of the society.

YOUTH'S ORGANISATIONS

Shri Samarth Vyayam Mandir, Amreli—Shri Samarth Vyayam Mandir is the oldest of its kind in Amreli. It was established in 1927 by the joint efforts of some prominent social workers of Amreli like Sarva Shri Jagjivandas Narayan Mehta, Jethalal Vanmalidas Vora, Khushaldas Kurji Parekh, Dr. Jivraj Narayan Mehta, Harilal Govindji Parekh, Ramji Hansraj Kamani, Prataprai Girdharlal Mehta, and Bhagwanji Lavji Mehta. The last named, who personally trained the students of the institution since its inception is now the president of the institution. By the untiring efforts of these workers, the institution soon became popular in Amreli and surrounding areas and began to receive donations from the public. As a result, it could construct its own building in 1933, at a cost of Rs. 5,000.

Since its establishment, a large number of young men—both Hindus and Muslims—have been trained in physical education. Many of them were subsequently employed in various institutions as teachers. The institution is rendering singular service to the youth and has earned a name in Amreli. The work done by the institution has been praised by many. Many well-known persons have visited the institution and praised its activities. The trainees of the institution have taken part in many game competitions and won prizes and shields.

The Young Blood Association, Amreli—The institution was established in 1967 with a view to organising the activities of younger generation for social and cultural development of the society. It provides financial help to the poor for medical purposes. It organises *shram-yagnas* and arranges cultural programmes.

In addition to the voluntary social service organisations described above, there are a number of smaller organisations functioning in various parts of the district. These organisations numbering nearly 100, mainly comprise Youth Clubs and Mahila Mandals.

CHAPTER XIX
PLACES OF INTEREST

ABBREVIATIONS

P.=Persons	M.=Males	F.=Females
G. P.=Group Panchayat	Mu.=Municipality	
V. P.=Village Panchayat	N. P.=Nagar Panchayat	

Amreli—Amreli Taluka (P. 34,699—M. 18,064; F. 16,635); Mu.

Amreli, the headquarters of the district lies on the north latitude 21°-36′ and the east longitude 71°-13′. The town is situated on a small river called the Thebi. It was fortified by a wall, which is in ruins at present. It was called Amarvalli in the ancient time. This is evidenced from the stone inscription found in the Nagnath temple at Amreli. The temple was built in Vikram Samvat 1873 (1817 A. D.) In the west and south of the modern Amreli, there exist the remnants of the old town in the foundations in the ford of the Thebi and the Vadi rivers and the two old temples, the Kamnath and the Trimbaknath on the west and the east of the river. In the 18th century, only the west and the south of the modern Amreli (still called *Juni* or old Amreli), were inhabited. The Jumma Masjid near the jail formed part of the old town. The modern Amreli dates from 1793, when Vakhatsinh of Bhavnagar sacked the neighbouring Kathi possession of the town Chital and drove the inhabitants of this town to take refuge in Amreli and Jetpur. The credit for extension and improvement of the Amreli town goes to Vithalrao Devaji, Sir Suba of Kathiwar (1810-1815). He built many works of public utility such as temples, a market, and a dam for water-supply. A well called Baxi Kuva was built by Nana Baxi in the time of Vithalrao.

There are two noteworthy bungalows at Amreli. One was built by Captain Ballantine when he was in Amreli from 1817 to 1819. He assisted the Gaekwad's representative in governing the province of Kathiawar. Now it is occupied by the Civil Surgeon. The other bungalow called the Mir Saheb's Haveli was constructed in about 1850 by Mir Sarfaraz Ali, formerly manager of Amreli. Besides these, outside the town, there are buildings which were used in the past for the Prant Office and for the residence of His Highness during tours. Now the offices of the Collector, the District and Sessions Judge and the District Superintendent of Police are accommodated in them.

In the old fort, the *juno kot*, there were piles of round shots and some old field and siege guns of the English and Indian make, with carriages mostly ruined. Now they are exhibited in the museum at Amreli.

The town was famous for its snuff, *dhotars*, *chofals* and silver vessels which were exported to other parts of Gujarat. The silver work had a reputation more than local, having found a ready market in England and Africa. Now, they have lost their importance.

The important industries of the town are oil mills and spinning and weaving mills. There are at present 17 oil mills, 2 textile mills and 100 handlooms. Besides these, there are 14 small factories manufacturing soap, ice, wire nails, etc. It has one seed research farm and the best agricultural market yard.

There is one well-equipped museum which provides recreation for children. It is named as Nehru Bal Bhawan. The building which houses the museum, was built by Vithalrao Devaji, the Suba of the Gaekwad for his residence. The museum and the Bal Bhawan have been established by Shri Prataprai Girdharlal Mehta in commemoration of his father Girdharlal Dhanjibhai Mehta. But when Bhadrashil Rao, cousin of the Maharaja Sayaji Rao came as Suba, he was permitted to occupy the separate building called the Sukh Nivas. Thereafter, the Sukh Nivas premises became the residence of the Suba.

The town is one of the important centres of educational activities. There are 4 high schools - 2 for boys and 2 for girls, three colleges teaching Arts, Science and Commerce and two technical institutions of which one is the Industrial Training Institution. The town is famous for several caste boardings. The Samarth Vyayam Mandir, two public gardens and a swimming pool are provided as civic amenities.

There is a full-fledged and well-equipped Civil Hospital. An Ayurvedic Hospital is also established there.

In order to provide credit facilities, there exist branches of the State Bank of India, the Punjab National Bank, the Dena Bank, the Bank of Baroda, the Amreli District Central Co-operative Bank and the Amreli Nagarik Co-operative Bank.

The predominant inhabitants of the town are the Banias, who are businessmen and commission agents, the Luhanas, who are oil-seeds merchants, the Vanzas, who are weavers and tailors and the Vohras, who deal in cutlery.

Ansodar—Lathi Taluka (P. 2,471—M. 1,278; F. 1,193); V. P.

Ansodar, lies on the north latitude 21°-39' and the east longitude 71°-27'. The nearest railway station is Panch Talavada Road on the

Dhasha-Mahuva section at a distance of about 3 kms. Ansodar is connected by bus service with Lathi, Damnagar and Gariadhar.

The village originally belonged to the Bhavnagar State and was held by the Kathis on the *bhag-batai* system. The land revenue was fixed in lump (*udhad*) at 4 annas per acre and as this rate was ridiculously low, it was said આ શું દર ? From this, the village has come to be called Ansodar.

The Panchayat system was first introduced in this village by the Bhavnagar State in 1935 and since then the same person is being elected unanimously as *Sarpanch* of the village.

After Independence, several development works have been carried out in the village such as the dispensary, two primary schools, water-works, supply of electricity, the veterinary dispensary, etc. The water of the village is not healthy with the result that both the people and the animals suffer from rheumatism.

Antalia—Lilia Mahal (P. 613—M. 315; F. 298); V. P.

Antalia, which lies on the north latitude 21°-35′ and the east longitude 71°-23′ is situated 8 kms., north-west of Lilia, the mahal headquarters. It is connected with Lilia by bus service. The nearest railway station is Lilia-Mota, about 6 kms., from the village.

This place is famous because of the temple of Mahadev called Antaleshwar. About its *ling*, it is said that the Kanbi Patels of the village were carrying the *ling*-stone in the cart, but it fell down on the way. When attempts were made to lift it, it sank deeper and deeper in the ground. Thereafter, the Kanbi Patels of the area gathered and built a temple at the place where the *ling-stone* lay. As the *ling* could not be lifted, it was installed much below the level of the ground. This happened about 150 years ago. The pictures of the Patels who built the temple were painted on the interior walls of the dome of the temple. They are still in good condition.

This village along with Lilia was conquered by Thakor Vakhatsinhji of Bhavnagar at the close of the last century. The Kathi Darbars predominate in the village population.

The village is electrified. It has a primary school.

Babapur—Amreli Taluka (P. 1,843—M. 918; F. 925); V. P.

Babapur, 14 kms., from Amreli, lies on the north latitude 21°-31′ and the east longitude 71°-07′. It is connected with important places such as Amreli, Bagasara and Junagadh by the bus service.

It is known for the activities of the Sarvodaya Kendra located there. The Kendra conducts the Kumar Ashram, the Balmandir, the Lokshala, one high school for backward class students, the primary teachers training college for women, etc. It carries on agricultural and allied activities such as improvement in strains of *bajri*, fruit nursery, experiments in grape-plantation and cattle breeding. A local strain of *bajri* experimented here has become well-known in the district as Babapuri Bajro. It also maintains one Sarvodaya dispensary. Besides being a nucleus of educational activities, schemes for agricultural development are also undertaken by the Centre.

Babra—Babra Taluka (P. 8,088—M. 4,136; F. 3,952); G. P.

Babra, headquarters of the Babra taluka, lies on the north latitude 21°-51′, and the east longitude 71°-18′. It is situated on the Rajkot-Bhavnagar State Highway. The nearest railway station is Chital, 16 kms., away from the village. Before the formation of the Union of Saurashtra in 1948, Babra was the seat of an important Agency Thana, which was established to control the Kathis. The river Kalubhar has its source at a distance of about 6 kms., from Babra.

The town claims antiquity because of certain remnants of the Pandavas. On the north bank of the river Kalubhar, there is one ancient Shiva temple said to have been built by the Pandavas during their 14 years wanderings in the forests. Nearby, there are relics of the Kunti's well and Panch-Kund (five rectangular tanks) near the Shiva temple.

There are two legends about the place. According to one legend, there existed a town called Manipur on the bank of the Pampa Sarovar. At this place, there is now only the Rampara river flowing in the low-lying basin. The area north of the Babra town has got a vast low-lying saucer-like physical depression giving an impression of the existence of a lake with vast expanse of water impounded by the encircling hills in the days gone by. This area is watered by five rivers which traverse the land round about the Babra town; the Kalubhar about 6 kms., distant from Babra, the Ghelo and the Bhadar about 26 kms., each, the Thebi 3 kms., and the Gagadio 1 km. Due to some physical upheaval or the local needs either for passage or irrigation breaches in the encircling hills might have been caused. Looking to the geo-physical conditions of the area, the possibility of the existence of a big lake like the Pampa Sarovar may not be ruled out.

The second legend is about the change of the name of Manipur into Babra. It is said that once Arjuna came to the Pampa Sarovar where he met two Nag-Kanyas, Ulupi and Chitrangada. Arjuna fell in love with both and married them. By Ulupi, Babruvahana was born. The old town of Manipur, the legend has it, was destroyed for reasons not known and the new town that sprung up near the Pampa Sarovar was called Babruvahana after his name. In course of time, the name Babruvahana came to be abbreviated into Babra.

There is no documentary or inscriptional evidence to support the above legends.

Under the three Five Year Plans, the town has witnessed considerable development. For education, one Bal-mandir, three primary schools, one English high school and one Sanskar Kendra for backward class children have been established. Under the health schemes, one primary health centre has been set up and the Family Planning Centre has been subsequently attached to it. For providing veterinary aid, a stockman centre is also established. For co-operative development, the Babra Purchase and Sale Co-operative Union has been formed In order to provide credit facilities, the branches of the State Bank of Saurashtra and the Gujarat Land Development Bank have been opened.

Bagasara—Kunkavav-Vadia Taluka (P. 15,325—M. 7,774; F. 7,551); N. P.

Bagasara, lying on the north latitude 21°-29′ and the east longitude 70°-58′ is the taluka headquarters and a railway station on the Kunkavav-Bagasara section. It is situated on the northern bank of the river Sataldi in the vicinity of the Gir which occupies the centre of the Saurashtra peninsula. It is linked with Amreli, Vadia, Kunkavav, Dhari, Visavadar, Junagadh, Rajkot, Gondal and Jetpur by bus service.

Historically, Bagasara belonged to the Vala Kathi and was one of the important Agency Thanas before integration. It was an important market centre for Gir timber.

The Munjiasar dam near the town was constructed on the Sataldi river during the First Five Year Plan at a cost of Rs. about 48 lakhs and was estimated to irrigate 4,200 acres of land. The construction of the dam and supply of electricity have helped agricultural production. In the area, groundnut is an important crop, which has made possible the establishment of 8 oil mills. The town has a hospital, a primary health centre, and a family planning centre. The important small scale industries are cotton-weaving by power-looms and handlooms and ribbon-*pattis* by power.

Bherai—Rajula Taluka (P. 1,895—M. 950; F. 945); V. P.

Bherai is a minor port lying on the north latitude 20°-59′ and the east longitude 71°-30′, about 19 kms., to the north-east of Jafrabad. There is a story about the name of the village. During the monsoon, the *kutcha* village roads, become muddy and slushy with the result that it is very difficult to go out of the village either on foot or by bullockcart. The village, as a result, becomes an island, where the people are cribbed and confined (ભરાઇ પડે છે) during monsoon. It was, therefore, named Bherai.

The port belonged to the Junagadh State before integration in 1948. The Junagadh State had its Thana at Bherai with a *Vahivatdar*, the police force and the treasury, because the administration of the Babariavad *Betalis* (42 villages) was carried on from this place.

The village is situated on the creek of the sea. The tidal water comes upto the village where it forks into two channels. The channel near the village is called *Sukhden* (giving facility) and the other skirting the eastern side of the village is called *Dukhden* (troublesome), because of difficulties in crossing it from the village side. For Bherai, the nearest railway station is Rajula, the taluka headquarters 10 kms., and Victor 8 kms., away from the village. By bus service it is linked with Amreli, Mahuva, Una, Rajula, Jafrabad and Rajkot.

There are two salt works at Bherai. Besides, there are 100 *Agarias* who have their own lands for cultivation of salt. Production of salt is estimated at 50.000 tonnes per year. Salt is exported through the Bherai port. However, being a very minor port, sea transport is not economical to the traders. The creek suffers from siltation. If steps for desilting it are not taken, it may become unnavigable. The anchorage point of the steamer is about 10 kms., from the Bherai port.

A Panchayat Ghar and a sanitary well have been constructed at Bherai after integration. The village also has a primary school and a dispensary.

Chalala—Dhari Taluka (P. 7,240—M. 3,668; F. 3,572); V. P.

Chalala lies on the north latitude 21°-25′ and the east longitude 71°-10′ at a distance of 19 kms., from Dhari, the taluka headquarters. It is a railway station on the Khijadia-Veraval line. It is linked by bus service with Amreli, Bagasara, Dhari, Rajula and Jafrabad. Formerly, Chalala was held by the Jhala Rajputs of Limbdi.

It has a high school, a town hall and a library. The primary health centre and veterinary aid centre have been provided after Independence. To provide credit facilities, branches of three banks have been established, namely, (1) the State Bank of India, (2) the Nagrik Bank, and (3) the District Central Co-operative Bank.

Chalala is known for production of Khadi by the Ambar Charkha.

Chanch—Rajula Taluka (P. 600—M. 275; F. 325); V. P.

Chanch, which lies on the north latitude 20°-57′ and the east longitude 71°-33′, is not far from the mouth of the Motapat creek, on a rock on the shore of the Arabian Sea. Victor is the nearest railway station and bus stop. Pipavav Bunder is 6 kms. from the Victor village and Chanch village is 3 kms., distant from Pipavav Bundar.

The village is called Chanch presumably because of its historical piratical past and a beak-like physical shape. It had a gigantic Rukhada tree which collapsed about 35 years ago. At present, the followers of the Swaminarayan religion have built one small Shiva temple on the spot which is called the Rukhadiva Mahadev. As Shree Swaminarayan had visited this place, it has become a place of pilgrimage for the followers of that religion.

The village has become famous because of the construction of a huge steamer-like palace called the Vijay-Mahal by the Maharaja of Bhavnagar. It is built with the Rajula stone and the Makarana marble at an estimated cost of Rs. 20 lakhs on the beak-like point on the sea-coast. The construction, which was started in 1945 took ten years to complete. It has 88 rooms and provides all modern amenities needed by the Maharaja and his entourage. It is the private property of the Maharaja.

It is populated by Kolis who work as *Kharvas* and labourers in the salt-works nearby. There is one primary school built during the Bhavnagar State regime. No other development has taken place after integration of the States.

Chital—Amreli Taluka (P. 7,583—M. 3,867; F. 3,716); G. P.

Chital, on the north latitude 21°-44′ and the east longitude 71°-12′ is situated about 14 kms., north of Amreli. It is a railway station on the Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar section of the Western Railway.

Chital was one of the earliest settlements of the Vala Kathis of Jetpur. Originally, a Sarvaiya holding, a pal of blackmail payment from it was acquired by the Selarka Kathis of Mendarda in Junagadh. The great seat of the Jetpur Kathi house was then at Devalia about 16 kms., north-west of Chital and about 8 kms., east of Vasavad. Najo Vala of Devalia pursued some Selarkas of Chital who had driven off his cattle, and was slain in the pursuit near the village of Sultanpur. The sons of Najo named Viro and Jaito continued the feud and finally the Selarkas relinquished to them the

pal over Chital, and a reconciliation was effected. The Selarka retired to Mendarda and the Devalia Valas removed their capital to Chital.[1] They became so powerful that they reduced the Sarvaiyas to a subordinate position. There are even now Sarvaiya Mulgirasia in Chital. Viro and Jaito founded the two principal branches of the Jetpur house called Virani and Jaitani. Jaito's grand-son also named Jaito was very famous, about whom the following folk song is sung :

> "*Tun Jaita Chitalne takhat, nar akut na thata ;*
> *Kathi kise ja bhog bharva Bhokaut.*"

> If thou, Jaita, on the Chital throne
> Had'st not been so unbending.
> The Kathis would have been obliged to move
> And would have been forced to pay dues
> like cultivators, Oh son of Bhoka ! "

Chital became prosperous under the Kathis who in 1803, together with the Kundla Kathis, made the first overtures to the British Government. The Kathis of Chital became so powerful that the Nawab of Junagadh ceded to them Jetpur, Mendarda, and Bilkha. It is said that by their presence in Mendarda, they restrained the Selarkas and Harsukh Kathis and controlled the turbulent tribes like Khants, Maiyas, etc., at Bilkha who proved troublesome to the Nawab of Junagadh and defended the line of Bhadar at Jetpur. Chital was the scene of famous battle between Thakore Wakhatsinhji of Bhavnagar and the Kathis in 1793 A. D. The Kathis had formed a joint front against Wakhatsinhji and included Wajsur Khachar of Jasdan; Thebanis of Paliyad, Khumans of Kundla, Ramanis of Chotila, etc. Wakhatsinhji also summoned his kinsmen—other Gohils of Vala, Lathi, etc., and laid a seize on Chital and conquered it imprisoning several of the Kathis, while others fled. He pursued them till he succeeded in dispersing the Kathi allies and left a garrison at Chital. Chital was later on restored to the Kathis. About Wakhatsinhji's campaign of Chital there are famous murals in the Darbargadh of Sihor depicting the event.

After Independence, a public library and a garden, a high school and water works with a number of stand-posts have been provided. It is an important marketing place for groundnut and has 4 oil mills.

The principal inhabitants of Chital are the Kanbis, the Vohras, the Banias, the Lohanas and the Brahmins. The Kanbis follow agriculture, whereas the Vohras, the Banias and the Lohanas follow business. The Brahmins follow the traditional rituals.

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1. CAMPBELL J.M., *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, Vol. VIII, *Kathiawar*, (1884), p. 404.

Damnagar—Lathi Taluka (P. 6,499—M. 3,327; F. 3,172); V. P.

Damnagar, which lies on the north latitude 21°-42′ and the east longitude 71°-31′, is a railway station on Dhasa-Rajula-Mahuva section. It is connected by bus service with Bhavnagar, Jamnagar (*via* Rajkot), Kundla, Amreli, Palitana, Gariadhar and Gadhada (Swamina). The original name of this place was Chhabhadia and was under the Lathi Chief. It was presented in dowry along with 11 villages to Damajirao Gaekwad who married the daughter of the Lathi Chief and was named Damnagar after Damaji. It was the headquarters town of the mahal in the former Baroda State and is now merged in the Lathi Taluka.

In the vicinity of the town, there is an ancient temple of the Kumbhanath Mahadev. The *kund* on the east has been converted in the shape of a well and is used as washing-*ghat* for public purposes.

Among development works undertaken after Independence, are o..e high school building, a primary girls school building and supply of electricity from the Dhuvaran project, a primary health centre and a vaterinary dispensary.

Among the industries, Damnagar has 8 oil mills, 4 ginning factories, and a stone-quarry.

The Kanbis and Kolis predominate in the village. The Kanbis are good cultivators and Kolis eke out their maintenance by agricultural labour.

Derdi-Janbai—Lathi Taluka (P. 963—M. 497; F. 466). V. P.

Derdi-Janbai, which lies on the north latitude 21°-49′ and the east longitude 71°-27′ was a separate tribute-paying State under the Babra Thana. The nearest railway station is Dhasa, on the Dhasa-Dhola section under the Bhavnagar Division, about 9 kms. away from the village. It is connected by bus service with Rajkot, Jamnagar, Bhavnagar and Ahmedabad.

There is a legend about the name of Derdi-Janbai. According to the *Kathiawar Gazetteer*, the legend runs as under :

This village was originally granted to the Charans who now hold it by a former Rao of Bhadli. The *jama* of the village was forgiven by Fatehsingh Gaekwar in 1803. Tradition says that Fatehsingh Gaekwar visited Derdi with Jijibava, the Chieftain of Lathi. He had heard much about the sanctity of Janbai, and as he approached the village, he saw it in a mirage surrounded as it were by a fort with lofty battlements and questioned Jijibava about it. Jijibava replied that the village was not even protected by a

cactus. Fatehsingh considered this as a miracle of Janbai. Afterwards when he riding on his elephant reached Derdi, he was met by Janbai surrounded by twenty Kathi females. She stretched out her arms to bless him and tradition says that her arms by a miracle reached him even in his seat on his elephant, so marvellously were they lengthened. Impressed by this, he alighted from his elephant and presented her Rs. 500 with great respect and forgave the *jama* of Derdi. Since this occurrence Derdi has been known as Janbai--ni-Derdi. The temple of Janbai is now in a ruined condition.

The main population of the village consists of Kolis whose occupation is agriculture There is one primary school at the village.

Dhareshwar—Rajula Taluka (P. 1,283—M. 655; F. 628); V. P.

Dhareshwar, which lies on the north latitude 21°-06′ and the east longitude 71°-27′, is 8 kms from Rajula, the headquarters of the taluka. The nearest railway station is the Rajula Junction, 3 kms. from the village. The village is also connected with Rajula by bus service.

Close to the village, there is a confluence of two big rivers, *viz.* Dhatarwadi and Surajwadi. The village is called Dhareshwar because of the temple of the Dhareshwar Mahadev in the village. The Mahadev is so called because the temple is located on the bank (*dhar*) of the Dhatarwadi river. The temple is over hundred years old and was built during the Bhavnagar State regime. It is managed by the Doshi Kapol Samaj Trust which provides free accommodation to the pilgrims in the Dharmashala attached to it. Because of its location on the high bank of the river Dhatarwadi, the temple provides a picnic spot to the people of Mahuva, Rajula and the neighbouring villages.

The Dhatarwadi weir was constructed across the Dhatarwadi river. during the Second Five Year Plan at a cost of Rs. 50,000. It provides irrigation to the land in villages Dolti, Detad, Bhamar and Meriana, which grow wheat.

The village is populated mainly by the Kanbis and the Kumbhars.

Dhari—Dhari Taluka (P. 12,970—M. 6,838; F. 6,132); V. P.

Dhari, which lies on the north latitude 21°-20′ and the east longitude 71°-02′ is the headquarters of the taluka of the same name. It is a railway station on the Khijadia-Veraval railway section and is 47 kms. away from Amreli. It is connected by bus service with Amreli, Rajkot, Kodinar, Savar-Kundla, Khambha and Bagasara.

Dhari is the birth place of the Swaminarayan Saint, Shri Yogi Maharaj.

There is a *kund* - a spring of water - below the old fort and an old *masjid* between the Natadia and Shetrunji rivers. At a picturesque spot about 3 kms., in the lower reaches of the Shetrunji river there is a shrine of Khodiar Mata.

Under the Five Year Plans, an agricultural farm has been established here. An institution attached to this farm imparts training about the technical know-how to the sons of agriculturists. The training period is of two years. There is a veterinary dispensary and a primary health centre with a family planning centre attached.

Dungar—Rajula Taluka (P. 4,325—M. 2,227; F. 2,098); V. P.

Dungar, lying on the north latitude 21°-04′ and the east longitude 71°-34′, is about 19 kms., from Rajula. It is a railway station on the Dhasa-Mahuva section of the Bhavnagar Division of the Western Railways. A branch-line from here goes to Victor-Pipavav Bundar. It is connected with Mahuva, Bhavnagar, Ahmedabad, Rajula, Una, Junagadh, Veraval and Savar-Kundla by bus service.

It is an ancient place which was known as Damrapuri and was ruled by the Chavdas.

Water-works, a high school, a Sarvajanik Boarding house for boys, a public garden, electric supply and telephone facilities are some of the development works carried out after Independence.

There are five oil mills in the town.

Fattehpur—Amreli Taluka (P. 532—M. 277; F. 255); V. P.

Fattehpur, lies on the north latitude 21°-34′ and the east longitude 71°-13′. It is situated about 3 kms., from the Amreli railway station, and is linked with Amreli and Khambha by bus service.

The place is famous, as it is the birth-place of Bhoja Bhagat (1785-1850 A. D.), who was a Savalia Kanbi. Though illiterate, with the blessings of his *guru*, in Girnar, he wrote inspiring *bhajans* and devotional songs in an unsophisticated but satirical and pungent language. His *chabkha* or scourges are famous throughout Gujarat. In order to test Bhagat's spiritual powers, the Kathiawar Diwan, Vithalrao Devaji imprisoned him in the building at Amreli (which now houses the Mamlatdar's office) where he composed 150 *chabkha* (scourges) preaching renunciation, social reforms and exposing hypocrisy of religious leaders. At present, there is a shrine of the Bhagat with his relics at the village.

Ghantvad—Kodinar Taluka (P. 3,349—M. 1,687: F. 1,662); V. P.

Ghantvad, on the north latitude 20°-55′ and the east longitude 70°-45′, is situated on the bank of the river Shingoda in the Gir forest. It is 19 kms. from Kodinar, the headquarters of the taluka. Ghantvad is a railway station on the Prachi Road-Kodinar section, and is linked by bus service with Kodinar, Veraval and other important towns.

There are two versions about the origin of the name of the village. According to one, the village was named Ghantvad because there were thick bunian trees (*ghata vad*) here. According to the others, as the village was originally inhabited by the Khant community, it came to be called Khantvad which was subsequently changed to Ghantvad.

An ancient temple called 'Rudreshwar Mahadev' is located on the high bank of the river Shingoda. The *ling* was said to have been established or worshipped by Arjuna during the wanderings of Pandavas in the forests. It is rectangular in shape and broken on one side. The place is holy for Hindus for performing "*Pitru-shraddha*" and is, therefore, called Rudra Gaya.

A fair is held here every year in the month of *Shravan* (August) attended by about 1,500 persons. There are three oil-mills, a veterinary dispensary and a rest-house in the village.

The Shingawada Irrigation Dam has been constructed at an estimated cost of Rs. 12 lakhs. It irrigates an area of about 500 acres.

Jafrabad—Jafrabad Mahal (P. 7,967—M. 3,947; F. 4,020), V. P.

Jafrabad, which lies on the north latitude 20°-52′ and the east longitude 71°-22′ is the headquarters of the Jafrabad mahal. The nearest railway station is Rajula. The town is connected by bus service with Una, Khambha, Chalala, Amreli, Savar-kundla, Rajula, Mahuva, Talaja, Bhavnagar, Sihor, Dhandhuka, Bavla and Ahmedabad.

Jafrabad, otherwise called Mazaffarbad, was a part of the Janjira State situated in the Kolaba district (Maharashtra). The founder was the Sidi Hillal of the Janjira house who conquered Jafrabad about the middle of the 18th century. In 1761, he executed an agreement with the East India Company for maintaining friendly relations with the British. Jafrabad paid no tribute either to the British Government or to the Gaekwad. The Jafrabad State had 12 villages exclusive of Shialbet, covering an area of 137 square kms.

The Janjira State had 52 forts covering an extensive territory. Due to the complacent attitude of the Nawab, many forts were lost. As a result, there runs a saying '*Siddibhai Ni Sabunman Bavan Killa Khoya*' (Do not let the grass grow under your feet).

The town of Jafrabad is a flourishing sea port situated on a fine creek about a mile distant from the Arabian Sea.

Jafrabad is known for fishing and salt works. A fishery camp is held every year at Jafrabad from October to January, when fishermen from places as far as Bulsar come here with their boats for fishing. The fish is exported to Bombay and other parts of India. The salt manufactured is sent out by country-crafts, and exported even to foreign countries.

It had once a flourishing trade in *ghee* and millet from the hinterland of Jafrabad. This is evident from the *pucca* two or three storeyed buildings in the town, which served as godowns for these commodities.

Jafrabad has one high school, two dispensaries (one Government and one private), 4 Mahadev temples, 2 Vaishnav Havelis and 3 mosques. One jetty is recently built by the port authorities. It has an excellent well-equipped library with a reading room.

Kadiali—Rajula Taluka (P. 915—M. 458; F. 457); V. P.

Kadiali, on the north latitude 21°-01′ and the east longitude 71°-29′ was formerly a separate tribute-paying taluka of the Junagadh State. It is about 22 kms., north-east of Jafrabad and 5 kms., north of Bherai Bundar. The nearest railhead Rajula city is about 6 kms., from the village. The important places with which it is connected by bus service are Rajula and Mahuva.

The place is known for clay deposits of different colours. Clay (ભૂતડો) was taken from here to Bombay for refining oil. Chalk, China clay and yellow clay (પરૂ) are also found. Different kinds of clay are sent to Bombay and other places.

The Kathis predominate in the village population.

Under the Five Year Plans, one primary school, the Panchayat Ghar, a multi-purpose co-operative society and Ayurvedic dispensary have been established at the village.

Khambha—Khambha Mahal (P. 4,327—M. 2,196; F. 2,131); V. P.

Khambha, which lies on the north latitude 21°-08′ and the east longitude 71°-15′, is on the bank of the river Dhatarwadi. It is the headquarters of the Khambha Mahal. Khambha is 61 kms., away from Amreli and 35 kms., from Chalala, the nearest railway station. It is, also connected by bus service with Amreli, Jafrabad, Una, Savar-kundla, Mahuva, Rajula and Dhari.

Before integration, it belonged to the Baroda State.

Khambha has two historical places nearby, Dhatarvad and Savagalo, both at a distance of 6 kms. Raja Mangad Valo ruled over Dhatarvad which is in ruins at present. It is now called Mobh-no-nes. Savagalo is completely wiped out of existence.

After Independence, a cottage hospital, one English high school, one Balmandir, the Government rest-house, the telephone exchange and electricity have been provided. A branch of the State Bank of Saurashtra has been opened.

Kodinar—Kodinar Taluka (P. 11,426—M. 5,966; F 5,460); N. P.

Kodinar, which lies on the north latitude 20°-47′ and the east longitude 70°-41′, is situated in the middle of the fertile strip of land called 'Nagher' extending from Mangrol to Babariavad. The town is 5 kms., away from the Arabian Sea and the river Singavada or Singoda flows on the western boundry of the town. It is the terminus on the Prachi Road-Kodinar section of the Western Railway. Further, it is connected by State Transport bus service with Bhavnagar, Amreli, Veraval, Una and Junagadh.

The Kodinar town and the surrounding areas originally belonged to the Prabhas Kshetra. It is dotted with temples which were damaged during the Muslim period. In the town, there is the Koteshwar Mahadev where there is a Nandi in a damaged condition. Secondly, in the Bapeshwar Mahadev temple, the *ling* and the Nandi are in a broken condition. Further the Bhairavnath Mahadev (*ling*) is very ancient and is located underground. Lastly, there is the Somnath Mahadev temple, where there is a very huge Nandi recovered from the vegetable market. All these are remnants of the historical past of Kodinar.

The Kodinar taluka formerly belonged to the Nawab of Junagadh who gave it as a gift to the Gaekwad in the early part of the 19th century. This historical fact accounts for its geographical isolation from the land mass of the Amreli district. It is believed that the present Kodinar was the old 'Kundinpur'. It is also believed that it was originally the "*Nes*" (habitat) of the Charans and was called "*Kodiya-no-Nes*". From this, it is said that the town might have derived its name of Kodinar.

Kodinar is known for a number of co-operative activities undertaken after Independence. Shri Bileshwar Khand Udyog Khedut Sahakari Mandali Ltd., set up a sugar factory in 1956 with a capacity of producing 1,500 bags per day on a co-operative basis. This factory has brought about far-reaching socio-economic changes in the taluka. Other undertakings are the distillery plant and oil mills which work on a co-operative basis. Further, a scheme for supply of electricity on a co-operative basis in rural areas is under way. For providing credit facilities, branches of the State Bank of Saurashtra and the Gujarat State Land Development Bank have been opened. Besides these, there are a seed sugar-cane farm, a fruit-nursery, a veterinary dispensary and the water-works with pipe lines in the town.

As the Kodinar area is covered by the coastal and Lili Nagher area, there is great scope for development of coconut-plantation, dairy industry and salt cultivation.

Krankach—Lilia Mahal (P. 3,558—M. 1,778; F. 1,780); V. P.

Krankach lies on the north latitude 21°-28′ and the east longitude 71°-27′. It is connected by bus services with Lilia, Savar-Kundla, etc. The river Shetrunji flows about 2 kms., to the south of the village. About 2 kms., from Krankach, the Gagadio, a verv brackish stream joins the river Shetrunji which has sweet water upto the point of confluence with Gagadio but becomes brackish thereafter. From this association of the bad with the good, there is a saying (શેત્રુંજીમાં ગાગડીયો ભળ્યો) 'The Gagadio has joined the Shetrunji'.

The village originally belonged to the Bhavnagar State, which had established one of its Thanas there. Close to the village, is an old *vav* or step-well in which are two small temples, the one dedicated to Lord Shiva, and the other to the sacred bull, Nandi.

Under the Five Year Plans, a sub-centre of the primary health centre has been established; the water-supply scheme is nearing completion, the village is electrified, and the people have adopted the improved tools and techniques of agriculture.

Kunkavav (Moti)—Kunkavav-Vadia Taluka (P. 5,129—M. 2,602; F. 2,527); V. P.

Kunkavav, which lies on the north latitude 21°-38′ and the east longitude 70°-59′, is a railway station on the Dhola-Jetalsar-Porbandar Railway line of the Western Railway. It is linked by the bus service with Amreli, Bagasara, Vadia, Gondal, Jetpur and Rajkot. Kunkavav is 19 kms., from Vadia. The headquarters of the taluka is at Vadia, but the office of the Taluka Panchayat is located at this village.

The supply of electricity for agricultural purposes has changed the agriculture methods. More wells are dug. Groundnut and sugar-cane are the main cashcrops grown in this area.

There are two oil mills, one high school, a primary health centre, a town hall with a reading room and a Government rest-house in the town.

Lathi—Lathi Taluka (P. 10,022—M. 5,183; F. 4,839); N. P.

Lathi, which lies on the north latitude 21°-44′ and the east longitude 71°-23′, is the headquarters of the taluka. It is 20 kms., north-east of Amreli. Lathi is a railway station on the Dhola-Porbandar Railway section. It is connected by bus service with Amreli, Rajkot, Bhavnagar, Junagadh, Damnagar, Botad and Ahmedabad.

Before merger in 1948, it was the capital of the non-salute jurisdictional State of Lathi with 14 villages in the Kathiawar Agency. The founder of the Lathi House was Sarangji, one of the sons of Gohil Sejakji, the common ancestor of the States of Bhavnagar, Palitana, Lathi and Vallabhipur. Sarangji's sister was married to the Chudasma Chieftain of Junagadh, who bestowed on him (Sarangji) and his uterine brother Shahji, the Hathila Chovisi near Kundla. Thereafter Sarangji made Hathila his headquarters, where his descendants ruled for four generations. When Ra' Mandlik of Junagadh conquered and sacked Hathila and slew Dudoji, the then ruling Chieftain, this branch of the Gohils withdrew to Lathi which they held till Independence.

Apart from this historical importance, Lathi shines in the literary firmament of Gujarat, as the birth-place of the poet Kalapi, the Thakore Saheb Sursinhji (1874-1900). He drank deep the fountain of the ancient and modern literature in Gujarati and also the works of eminent English poets and philosophers. Most of his works were posthumously published in 13 books, among which the '*Kalapi-no-Kekarav*' is considered to be a master piece of literary poems. The poem "*Hradaya Triputi*" is the longest poem depicting the triangle of love comprising Kalapi, wife Rama and ladylove Shobhana. His poems and letters reveal intense passion, sentimentality, a strong longing for freedom and sensuous love of nature. His premature death at the age of 26 years was an irreparable loss to the Gujarati literature. Literary circles of Gujarat paid a unique tribute to his memory by holding the 11th Session of the Gujarati Sahitya Parishad at Lathi in 1933-34 under the presidentship of the late R. B. Krishnalal Jhaveri.

The old municipality has been converted into a Nagar Panchayat after introduction of the Panchayati Raj.

After Independence, an English high school and the veterinary dispensary have been established. To provide credit facilities branches of the State Bank of Saurashtra, the Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank, the District Central Co-operative Bank and the Nagarik Sahakari Bank have been opened at Lathi.

Lilia—Lilia Mahal (P. 4,277—M. 2,165; F. 2,112); V. P.

Lilia, which lies on the north latitude 21°-32′ and the east longitude 71°-22′, is the headquarters of the mahal, 19 kms., from Amreli. It is a railway station on the Dhasa-Mahuva railway line. By bus service, it is connected with Palitana, Lathi, Gariadhar, Savar-Kundla and Amreli.

It originally belonged to the Bhavnagar State.

Its trade is dependent on Kundla and Amreli. To provide credit facilities the branches of the State Bank of Saurashtra, the Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank and the District Central Co-operative Bank have been established.

Lilia has a high school and separate primary schools for boys and girls. Under the Five Year Plans, a primary health centre has been established. A 19 km., *kutcha* road from Mota Lilia Railway Station to Amreli, has been made black topped. This has facilitated transport and business.

Muldwarka—Kodinar Taluka (P. 1,030—M. 525; F. 505); G. P.

Muldwarka, on the north latitude 20°-45′ and the east longitude 70°-39′, is situated on the sea-shore between the mouths of two rivers, the Somat and the Shingoda. The nearest railway station is Kodinar about 3 kms., from the village.

According to the *Kathiawar Gazetteer*, Muldwarka was the original seat of Lord Krishna. On a rock jutting into the sea, stands a ruined temple of Dwarkadhish without an idol in the sanctum. It is said that a secret passage lay under the temple through which Shri Lord Krishna escaped. From the ruins in front of the temple, it appears that there might be a big rectangular *Sabha Mandap* for *Katha-Kirtan* in the temple. Out side the main gate of the temple, there is a stone image of the standing Sun God.

The present *Pujari* has managed through public donations to excavate the area between the temple and the village Muldwarka. The excavations have revealed the old Gopi tank with sweet water, measuring 100 ft.×

100 ft., and about 10 ft. deep. The underground supply of water is so much that even two pumping-sets have not been able to exhaust the water in the tank. Besides the Gopi tank the excavations have exposed to view one Devdhara (Brahma-Kund) near the tank. Excavations are going on and may throw more light on the historical past of the place.

The main inhabitants of the village are Kolis and fishermen. Kolis earn their livelihood by agricultural labour and fishermen by fishing in the sea. There is considerable scope for development of fisheries.

There is a Government guest house near the village.

Nageshri—Jafrabad Mahal (P. 2,928—M. 1,507; F. 1421); V. P.

Nageshri, which lies on the north latitute 20°-55′ and the east longitude 71°-20′ is about 16 kms., west of Bherai, a minor port near Jafrabad. It is connected by bus service with Una, Rajula, Jafrabad, Amreli and Savar-Kundla.

Nageshri formerly belonged to the Junagadh State and was included in the Bherai Mahal. The civil court and the police thana were located here, whereas the revenue thana was stationed at Bherai

Nageshri was called Nagpur Patan, and occupied a site now called Juna Padar situated on the south-west of the present village. On the opposite bank of the Raydi river, there are several ruined step-wells nearby. One step-well called the Nalieri Vav is still there in a ruined condition.

The Bela Bundar was formerly connected with the Jafrabad creek, and Nageshri served as an inland market town. Rukhad Varu, a Babaria, flourished here about a century ago, and was renowned for his powers. In bardic poetry, he is styled Lord of Barda and is said to have preserved the food and water of the Paraj or Kathis. This Rukhad's mother was named Dholi, and was so famous, that instead of being known by his father's name, Rukhad was known by his mother's name as 'son of Dholi'.

The village has one unique Madhav Upnishad Temple which enshrines all Hindu Gods and Goddesses. It is a place of pilgrimage where people come from far and wide.

After Independence, two primary schools, a primary health centre, a veterinary aid dispensary and water works, a sub-post office and telegraph office have been established.

The communities of Kathis and Banias predominate among the village population.

Pipavav—Rajula Taluka (P. 418—M. 231; F. 187); V. P.

Pipavav, which lies on the north latitude 20°-58′ and the east longitude 71°-33′, is a hamlet situated on the east bank of the Jholapuri river. The nearest railway station is Victor on Dungar Victor section, less than one kilometer from the village. In fair season, the village is linked with Rajula and Mahuva by bus service. About 2 kms., south of the village, there is an old Pipavav Bunder on Devra-puri creek. The hamlet is said to have been founded by Pipa Bhagat and, therefore, it is named after him.

At the village, there is the Ranchhodji temple said to have been established by Pipa Bhagat, who was a staunch devotee of God Ranchhodji of Dwarka. Subsequently, the idols of Rama, Laxman and Sita were installed. The old temple was renovated and enlarged in Samvat 1976 (1920 A. D.). It is maintained by extensive Devasthan lands. The surrounding cultivable area admeasuring 900 *bighas* belongs to the temple. It is a place of pilgrimage for the Hindus.

Fairs are held here on the Chaitri Punam and Bhadrapad Amavasya, attended by about 3,000 persons.

The Kolis predominate among the population. They are landless labourers.

Rajula—Rajula Taluka (P. 12,646—M. 6,473; F. 6,173); V. P.

Rajula, the taluka headquarters, lies on the north latitude 21°-03′ and the east longitude 71°-27′. It has two railway stations, Rajula Junction and Rajula City, on the Dhasa-Mahuva line. The town is linked by the bus service with Veraval, Una, Mahuva, Jafrabad, Dungar, Nageshri, Savar-kundla, Rajkot, Bhavnagar and Ahmedabad. Rajula is situated on the bank of Ghanivelo river. About 13 kms., north-east of the town, are the hill ranges of the Babariadhar.

There are two old Shiva temples of Kamnath and Sukhnath. Recently one modern Pathshala called Tatvajyoti has been established. It has a temple with a standing image of Lord Krishna. It provides for teaching Sanskrit and other subjects included in the school curriculum.

Rajula is famous for stone quarries and salt production. In the Second Five Year Plan, one Udyog Mandir with hostel attached to it was opened for imparting training in handicrafts to the children of the Backward Clas-

ses. This is the second Udyog Mandir in Gujarat, the first being in Jamnagar.

Rajula is a minor port. The exports consist chiefly of cotton, building stone and salt produced at Bherai and Victor. The imports consist of food grains, timbers and piece-goods.

For credit purposes, there are branches of the State Bank of Saurashtra, the Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank and the Amreli District Co-operative Bank.

There are two high schools, five primary schools, three Balmandirs, and two public gardens. The town boasts of the Secondary Health Centre, which is second in the State.

During the Bhavnagar State regime, a municipality was established at Rajula in 1874. It was converted into a Nagar Panchayat in 1963, after introduction of the Panchayati Raj

The Kapol community which predominates in the town, has made a name in the big business circles of Bombay.

Shialbet—Jafrabad Mahal (P. 1 081—M. 515; F. 566); V. P,

Shialbet, an island, lies on the north latitude 20°-54′ and the east longitude 71°-31′. It is situated 3 kms., north-east of Dhatarwadi river and is about 5 kms., south-east of the Motapat creek The nearest railway station is Victor. It has an area of about 98 acres. The portion of island known as Savai Bet is isolated at high water tides.

The island is associated with several legends and political history. It is said that Ra' Kavat of Junagadh was confined in a cage with many other Rajput chiefs by Anand Chavda. They were released by Vala Uga of Bhadrod.

According to the *Kathiawar Gazetteer*, the oldest inscription on the island is of *Samvat* 1272 (A. D. 1216) in which a Mehar styled Rajshri Ransinhji of Timbanak (the modern Timana) is mentioned. Later on, during the reign of Sardar Khan, Foujdar of Junagadh (1664-1684), Mehars and Chavdas seem to have been expelled on account of their piratical habits and the island was fortified and garrisoned to protect trade and put down piracy. But after the island of Diu was acquired by the Portuguese, they seem to have established themselves here as well as on the coast. During the Muslim rule, the shrines of Savai Pir and Gheban Shah were erected. The Hindu and Jain Temples appear to have been levelled down

by either the Muslims or the Portuguese. When, however, the Portuguese power in the northern part of their dominions was curtailed by the fall of Bassein in 1739 A. D. and the acquisition of Salsette and Thana by the British, they left the outlying posts like the Shialbet, and concentrated all their energies on the defence of Diu. Afterwards, the island fell into the hands of Shial Kolis from whom it was conquered by the Siddis of Janjira. It seems plausible that the name of Shialbet might have been derived from the Shial Kolis.

The island is full of broken images and remnants of old Hindu temples. Altnough it is surrounded by sea, it has number of wells (about 400) containing sweet water. As a result there is no dearth of sweet drinking water on the island. But in the absence of tree-growth, there is great dearth of fuel on the island. There is one Than *vav,* the water of which is considered to have miraculous properties in inducing milk in the breast of nursing mothers. It is said that if the breasts of a woman do not yield milk, they would get milk if the blouse dipped in the water of the step-well is put on by her. The island is also a venue of the story of Sagalsha and Chandravati Rani who pounded the head of her son Chelaiya by pestal to satisfy God. Visitors are shown the stone and the pestal by which this was done. Just adjacent to the island but beyond the creek, there is the Savaibet on which there is a tomb of Savai Pir. It is a place of pilgrimage for all Kharvas and seafaring communities. On the side of the Savai Pir there is a huge black buffalo-like rock which is called *Bhenslo*. It is said that Abu Pir, who resides there, does not allow anybody to stay overnight on the rock.

The entire population is of Kharvas who are poor and illiterate. They own 30 vessels. They are a brave sea-faring people carrying cargo to Broach, Surat and other distant ports. Althoogh they live on the island, it is noteworthy that they are not fishermen.

Although water found in abudance on the island, not much land is available for cultivation by the Kharvas. Whatever small pariels of land holdings are available are utilised for growing vegetables like brinjals and chillies. Berries are in plenty.

For consumer needs, people have to depend on the Jafrabad market for which one boat plies to and fro every day.

After Independence, one primary school and one co-operative society have been established. A Gram Panchayat is also formed.

Vadia—Kunkavav-Vadia Taluka (P. 6,743—M. 3,477; F. 3,266); V.P.

Vadia, lies on the north latitude 21°-41′, and the east longitude 70°-49′.

It is the headquarters of the Kunkavav-Vadia taluka and a railway station on the Dhola-Porbandar line of the Western Railway. During the fair season, it is connected by bus service with Bagasara, Kunkavav, Amreli, Jetpur, Gondal, Rajkot and Junagadh.

The town is well-planned and was once the seat of the former Vadia State.

After Independence, a power-house, water-works, a post office, one high school, dispensary, seed centre, branches of the State Bank of Saurashtra and the Gujarat State Co-operative Land Development Bank have been provided.

Varah-Swarup—Jafrabad Taluka (P. 200—M. 109; F. 91); V. P.

Varah-Swarup, lies on the north latitude 20°-52' and the east longitude 71°-26' and is commonly called Varah Rup. It has derived its name from the temple of Varah-Swarup there.

It is on the shore of the Arabian Sea, about 13 kms. east of Jafrabad and about 22 kms., south of Rajula. The nearest railway station is Rajula at a distance of 19 kms.

There is a temple of Varah-Swarup. It relates to Vishnu in his third incarnation, when in the form of a boar, he supported the world on his tusk from the *Daitya* Hiranyakasha, who was endeavouring to provoke him to combat. Vishnu was trying to save the world after the deluge beneath the ocean, and was pursued by Hiranyakasha who insulted him and tried to provoke him to fight. Until he had firmly established the world, Vishnu ignored all insults from Yaksha and then fought with Hiranyakasha and slew him. A small hamlet has sprung up round the temple.

Before integration Varah-Swarup belonged to the Junagadh State. The old temple of Varah-Swarup has been renovated and an idol has been installed therein. Two years ago, the Jalaram temple authorities have also built their temple here, on the sea shore. It is a place of pilgrimage for the Hindus. Here a fair is held on Bhadrapad Amas.

The main population is of Kolis, who live upon agriculture.

After Independence, one primary school is built. A *kutcha* road from Mitiala to Varah-Swarup has been built as famine work.

Victor—Rajula Taluka (P. 549—M. 287; F. 262)

Victor lies on the north latitude 21°-01' and the east longitude 71°-33' and is 16 kms. from Rajula, the taluka headquarters.

It is a railway station on the Dungar-Victor section of the Bhavnagar Division of the Western Railway. In fair season, the port is linked with Rajula, Mahuva and other places of the area by bus service. It originally belonged to the Bhavnagar State where a check-post was put up by that State.

In order to improve the port of the Bhavnagar State, the State Engineer, Mr. Richard Proctor Sims surveyed the entire coastal area and constructed a port, which was named Port Albert Victor after the name of the uncle of King George V. Mr. Sims established there a village of the same name. After integration in 1948, this port was re-named Rajula Bunder. When the people opposed the change in name, it was re-named Pipavav Bundar, but the name of Victor clung to the village. During the Bhavnagar State, Port Albert Victor was a mahal and the Rajula town was included in it; but after integration, the headquarters of the mahal were transferred from Port Albert Victor to Rajula, which is now the headquarters of the taluka. At the village Victor there still stands the house in which Mr. Sims lived and laboured to build up the port. Nearby there is his tomb with the following epitaph :—

IN MEMORY OF
RICHARD PROCTOR SIMS
M.I.C.E.
STATE ENGINEER
AND
PUBLIC WORKS COUNCILLOR
DIED OF CHOLERA
WHILE ON
FAMINE DUTY
ON 31ST MAY 1900
AGED 60 YEARS
ERECTED BY
THE
BHAVNAGAR DARBAR
IN APPRECIATION
OF
HIS LONG
AND
MERITORIOUS SERVICES
OF
25 YEARS.

At a distance of about 2 kms., east of the village Victor, there is Majadar village which is the birth-place of the popular bard, Kavi Dula Kag, who has been awarded Padmashri by Government in appreciation of his literary talent.

Victor is one of the important salt manufacturing centres in Gujarat. About 3,704 acres of land have been leased for manufacture of salt to the Saurashtra Salt Works. The salt produced here is exported to different places in India and also to foreign countries such as Japan, Philippines, Korea and Africa. However, the place suffers from scarcity of drinking water and lack of electricity. If provision is made for water and electric power, there is great scope for manufacture of salt and salt-based industries.

PLATES

LIST OF PLATES

17. Shiv-ling of Antalia Mahadev with its major portion underground.

18. Frescos on the inner walls of the Antalia Mahadev temple at Antalia Village, Lilia Mahal.

19. Shri Bileshwar Sahakari Khand Udyog Mandli, a Co-operative Sugar Factory at Kodinar.

20. The Sun Temple, Mul-Dwarka, near Kodinar.

21. Gnan-Vav with excavations at Mul-Dwarka near Kodinar.

22. Rudreshwar Mahadev Temple and Dam, Ghantvad (Taluka Kodinar).

23. Interior view of Rudreshwar Mahadev Temple with Shiv-ling and image of Goddess in the background at Ghantvad (Kodinar Taluka).

24. Chanch Palace opposite Port Victor in Rajula Taluka.

25. The idol of Ranchhodraiji—about 1,000 years old—(left) at a temple in village Pipavav, (Rajula Taluka).

26. Munjiasar Dam near Bagasara (Taluka Kunkavav-Vadia).

27. Siddi mother and son.

28. Fishermen's Camp at Jafrabad—fishermen unloading fish-catch.

29. Fishermen's Camp at Jafrabad—drying up fish on the sea-shore.

30. Fishermen's Camp at Jafrabad—huts on the sea-shore.

31. Fish-meal Plant at Jafrabad.

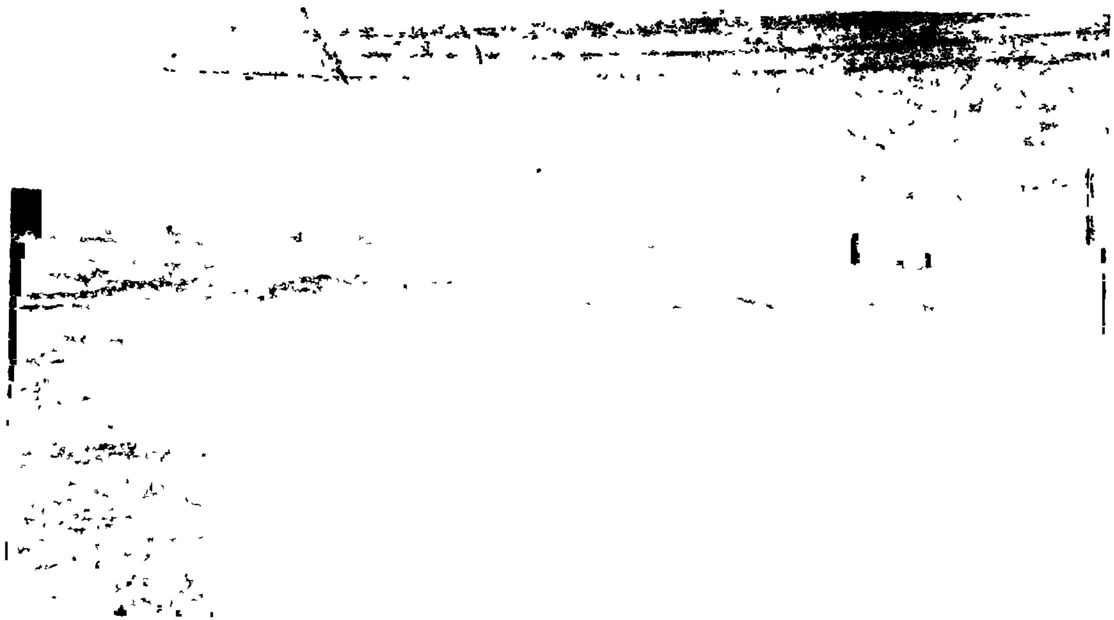
32. Varah-Swarup Temple at Varah Swarup village (Taluka Jafrabad).

33. Some of the popular motifs of the bead work.

34. *Chakla*—a coverlet, an elaborate piece of embroidery work depicting human, bird and animal motifs.

35. *Chakla*—a coverlet displaying a design studded with small mirrors (*Abhlas*).

36. *Hirbharat*—a special type of embroidery from the Jafrabad area.



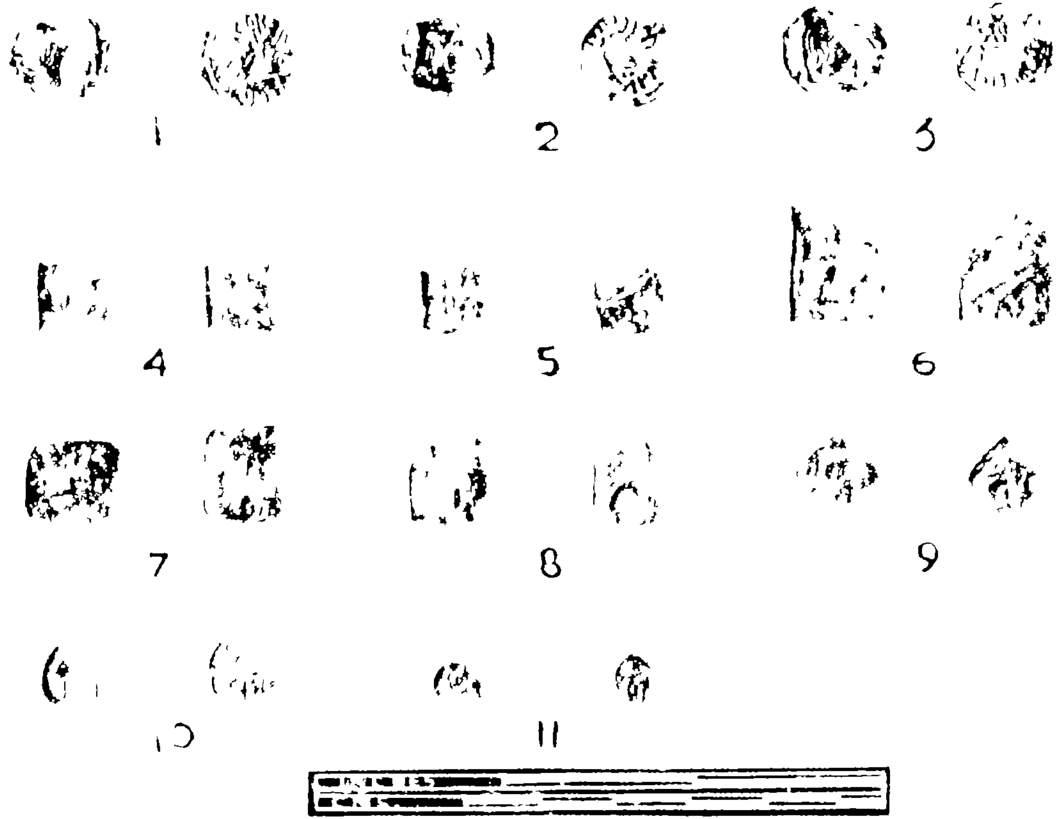
1. Gohilwad Timbo—A view from the River Thebi near Amreli

(By courtesy Director of Museum and Picture Gallery, Baroda)



2 Buddhist Structure at Gohilwad Timbo

(By courtesy Director of Museum and Picture Gallery, Baroda)



3 Coins of Kshatrapa–Gupta periods found in excavations at Gohil[illegible] mbo Amreli

[illegible] Director of Museum and Picture Gallery



4 Terracotta and Stone plaques with figures of Gods and Goddesses found in excavations at Gohilwad Timbo

(By courtesy Director of Museum and Picture Gallery Baroda)

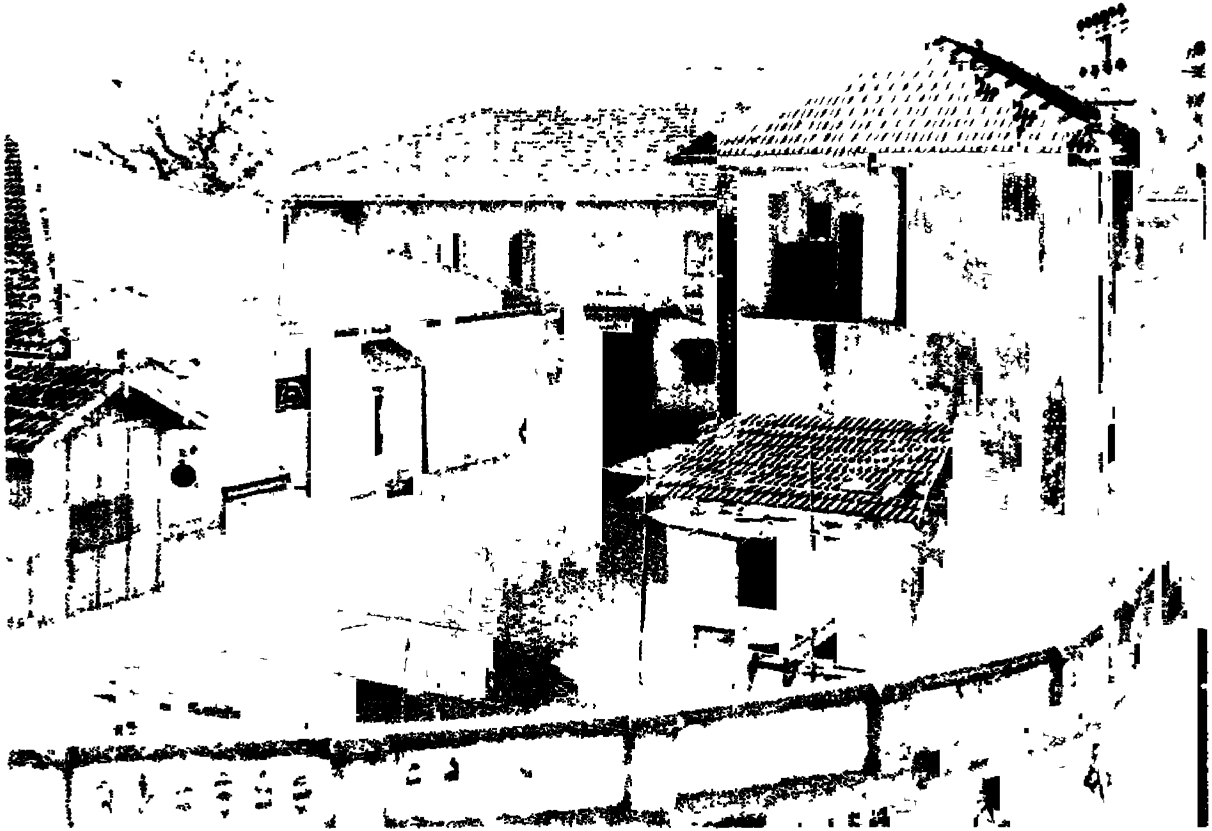


5 Stone-grinder, earthen pot, stone pestle, a long round stone used for crushing and a stone inscription found in excavations at Gohilwad Timbo at Amreli. The stone-grinder takes Amreli to the 2nd century B.C. and earthen pot to the 4th century A.D.

(By courtesy Curator, Shri Girdharbhai Museum, Amreli)

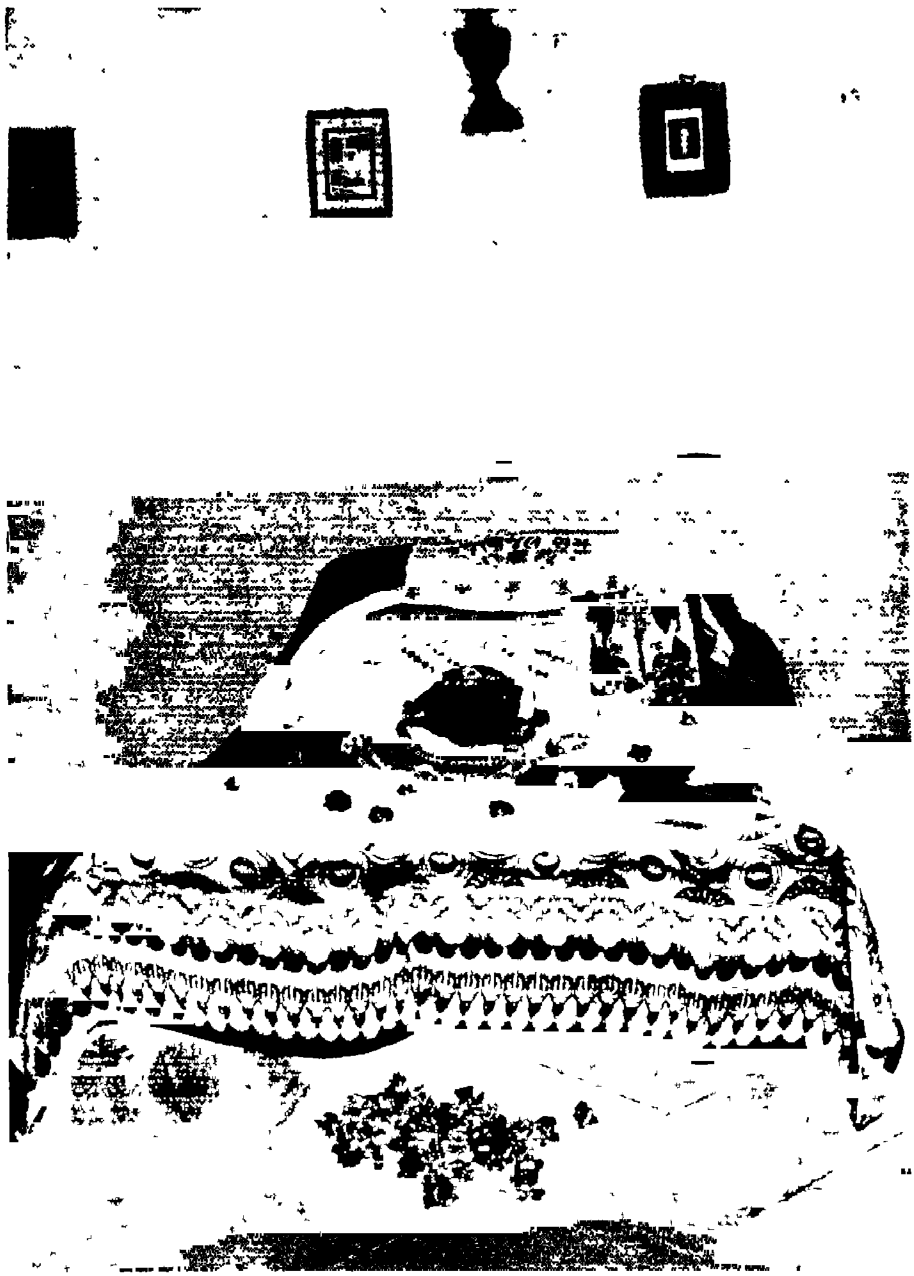


6 Rangmahal built in 1835 A. D. at Amreli for residence of the former suba of the Gaekwad, now used as the Girdharbhai Museum



Extension to the Range Hall now used as Mamlatdar's office at Amreli





9. Gadi of Bhoja Bhagat with his *paghadi*, rosary and *padukas* at Fatehpur (Taluka Amreli)



10. The [illegible] Mazar, the dargah of M[illegible] [illegible] Tiwari at Amreli said to have been built about 200 years ago



11 Poet Kalapi,
Sursinhji Takhtsinhji Gohel, Thakor of Lathi (1874-1900 A. D.)

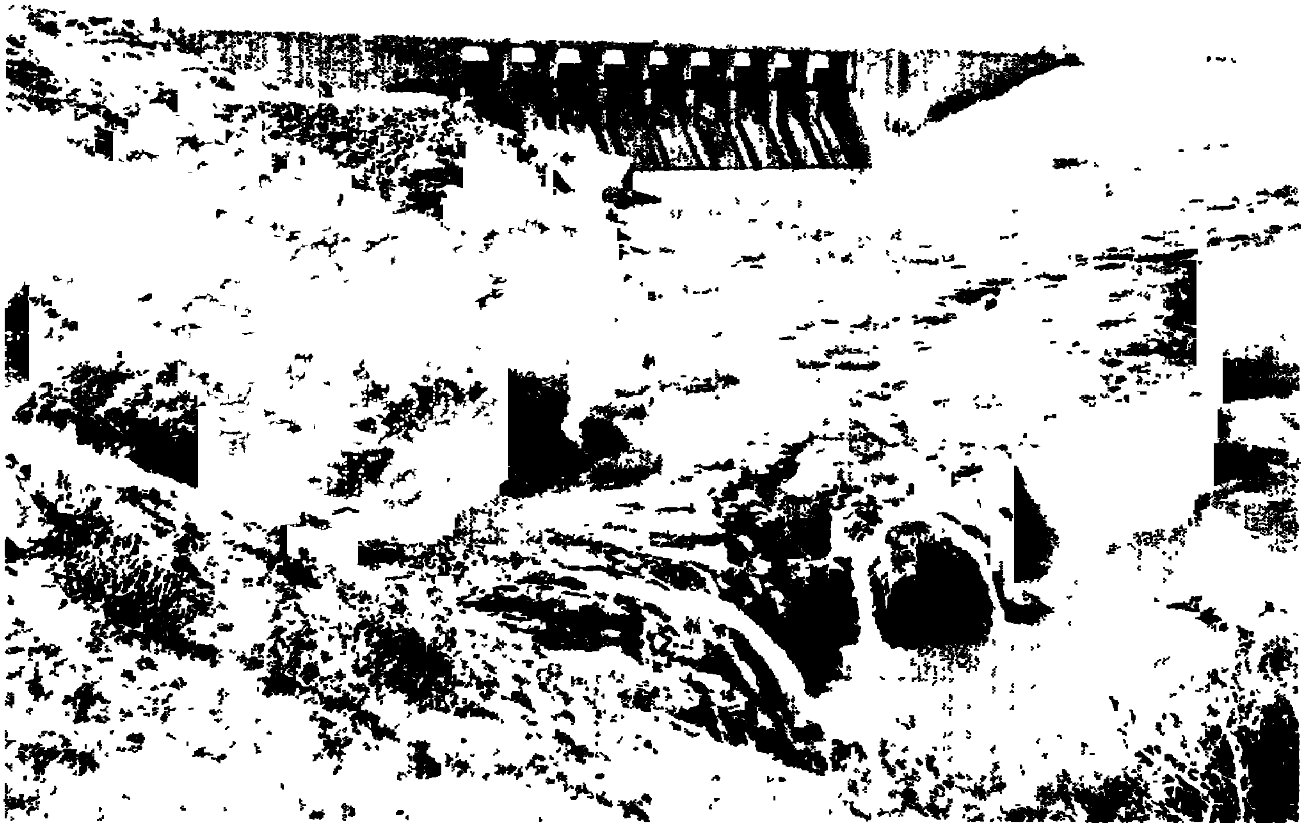


II-a Kumar Mangalsinhji of Lathi (b. 1915)
(Grandson of poet Kalapi)
Renowned Mural Painter of Gujarat



12 Kumbhanath Mahadev Temple Damnagar

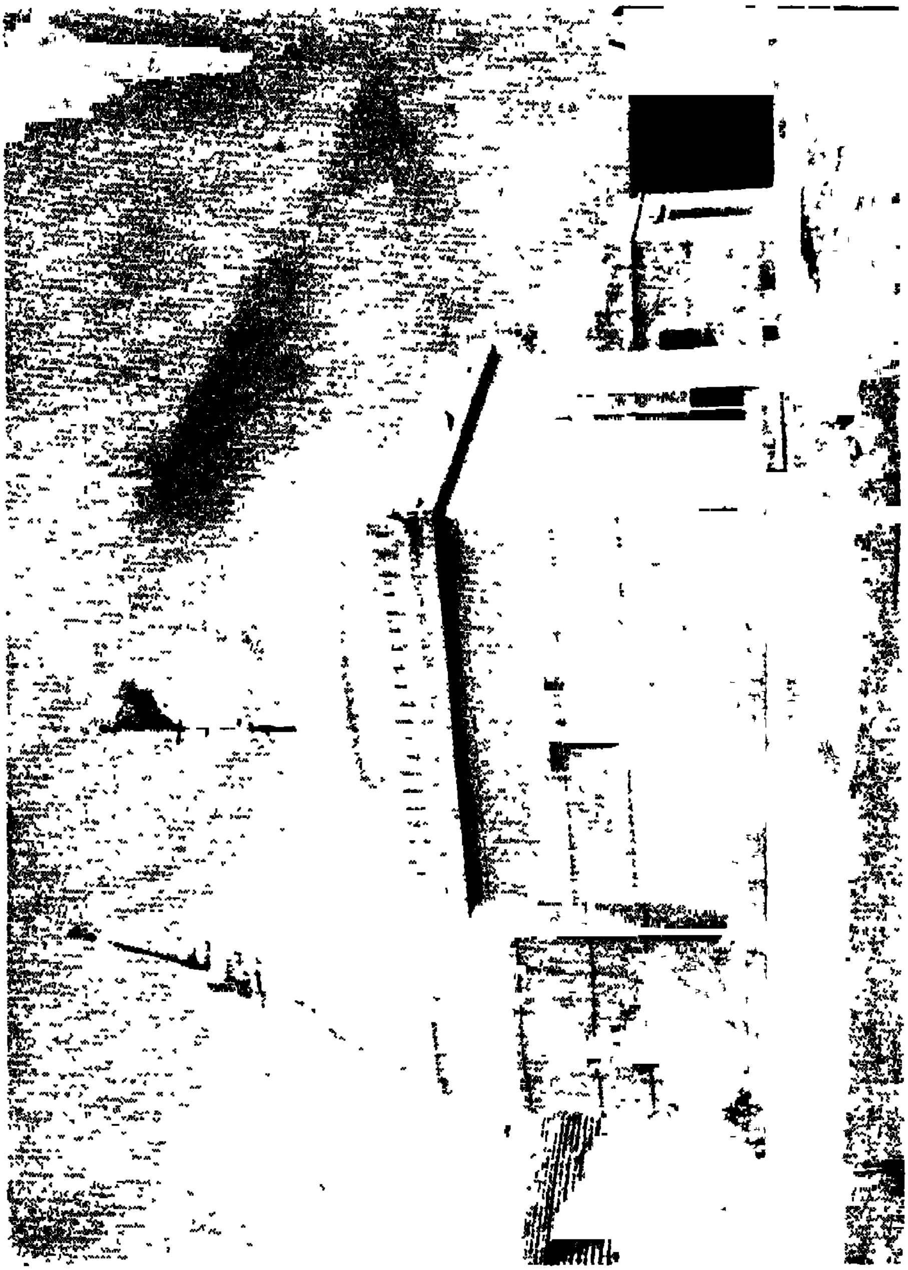




14 The Khodiyar Dam on the river Shetrunji near Dhari



15 Poet Kant
Manishanker Ratnaji Bhatt born at Chavand Lathi Taluka (1867-1923 A. D.)



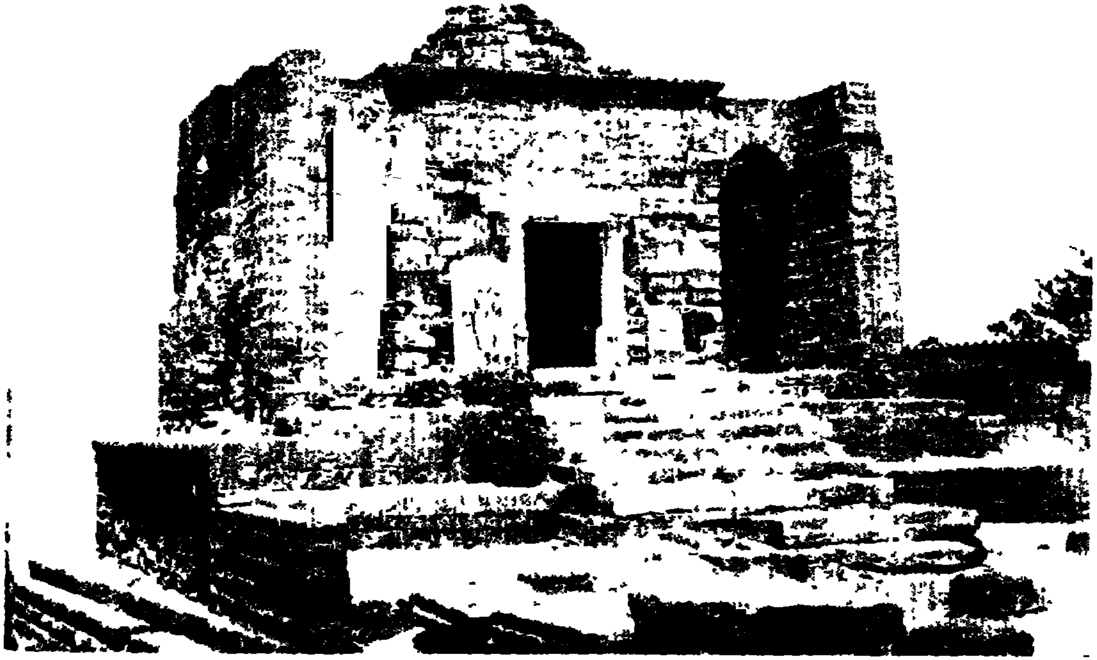




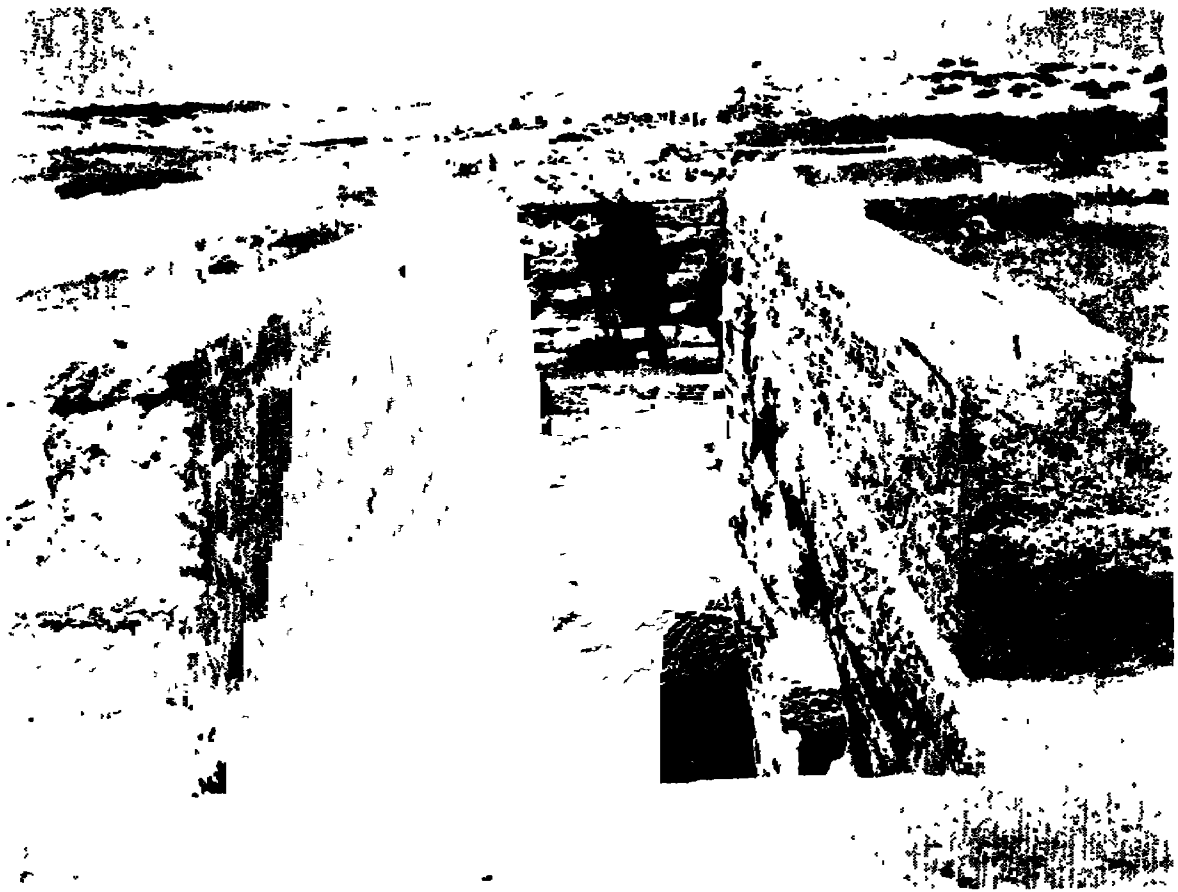
18 Frescos on the inner walls of the Antalia Mahadev temple at Antalia village, Lilua mahal



19 Shri Bileshwar Sahakari Khand Udyog Mandli a Co-operative Sugar factory at Kodinar



20 The Sun Temple Mul-Dwarka, near Kodinar



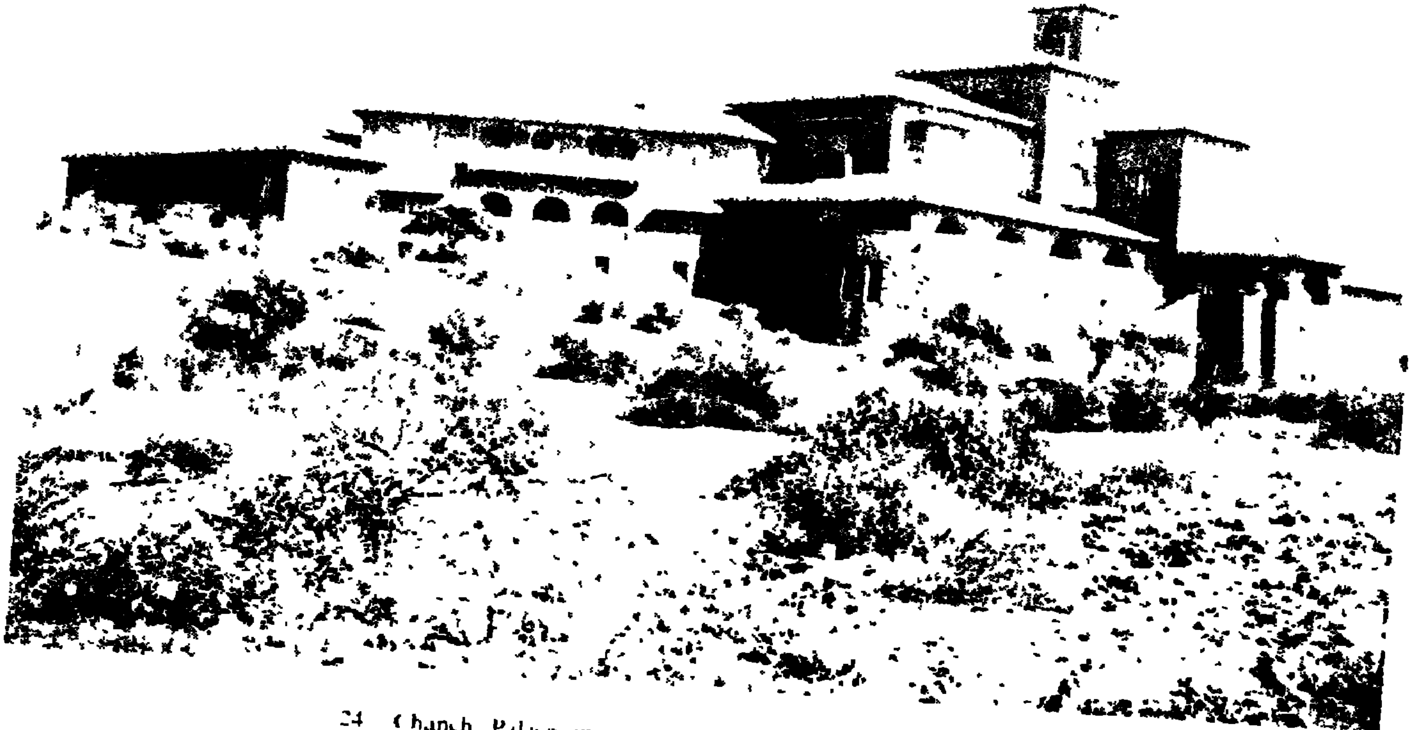
21. Gnan-Vav with excavations at Mul-Dwarka near Kodinar



22. Rudreshwar Mahadev Temple and Dam, Ghantvad (Taluka Kodinar)



73 Interior view of Rudreswar Mahadev Temple with Shiv-ling and image of Goddess in the background at Ghantvad (Kodinar Taluka)



24 Chanch Palace opposite Port Victor in Rajula taluka



25 The idol of Ranchhodraiji-about 1000 years old-(left) at a temple in village Pipavav (Rajula Taluka)



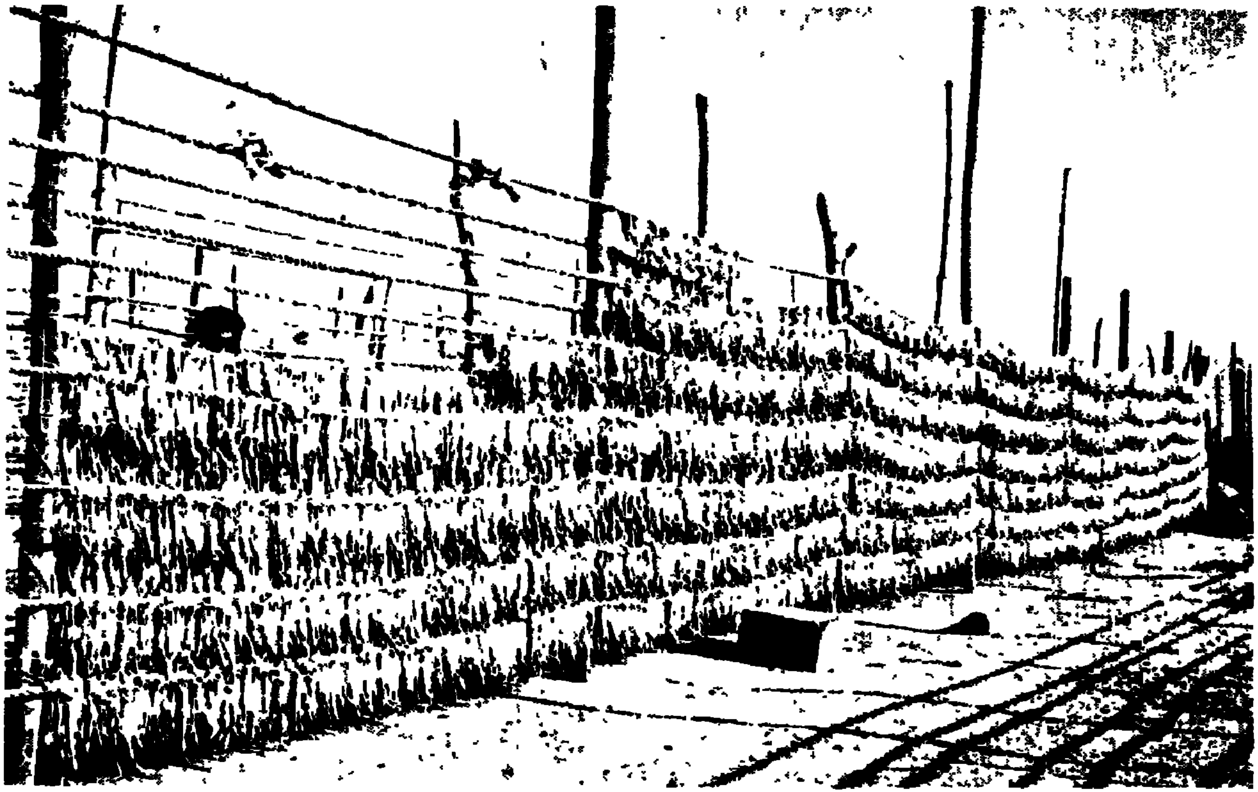
26 Munjiasar Dam near Bagasara (Taluka Kunkavav-Vadia)



37 Sidet mother and son



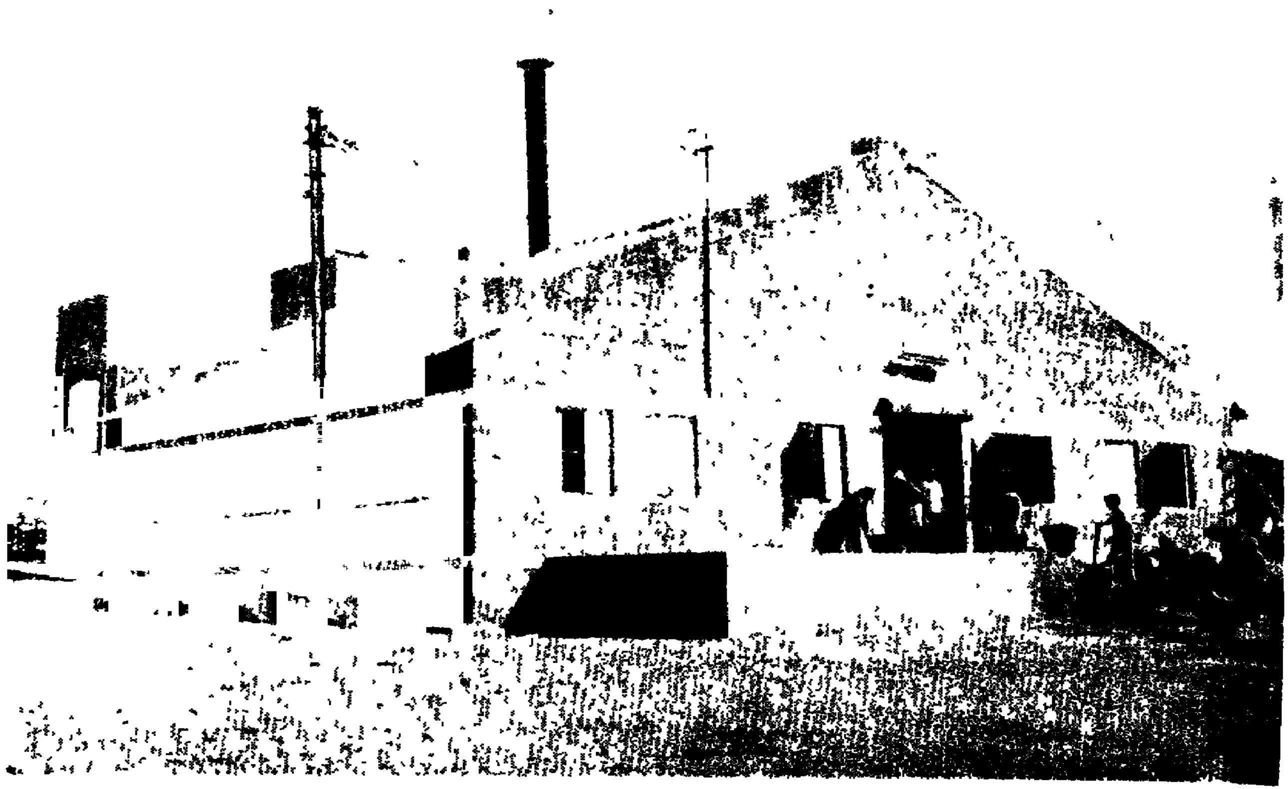
28 Fishermen's Camp at Jafrabad fishermen unloading fish-catch



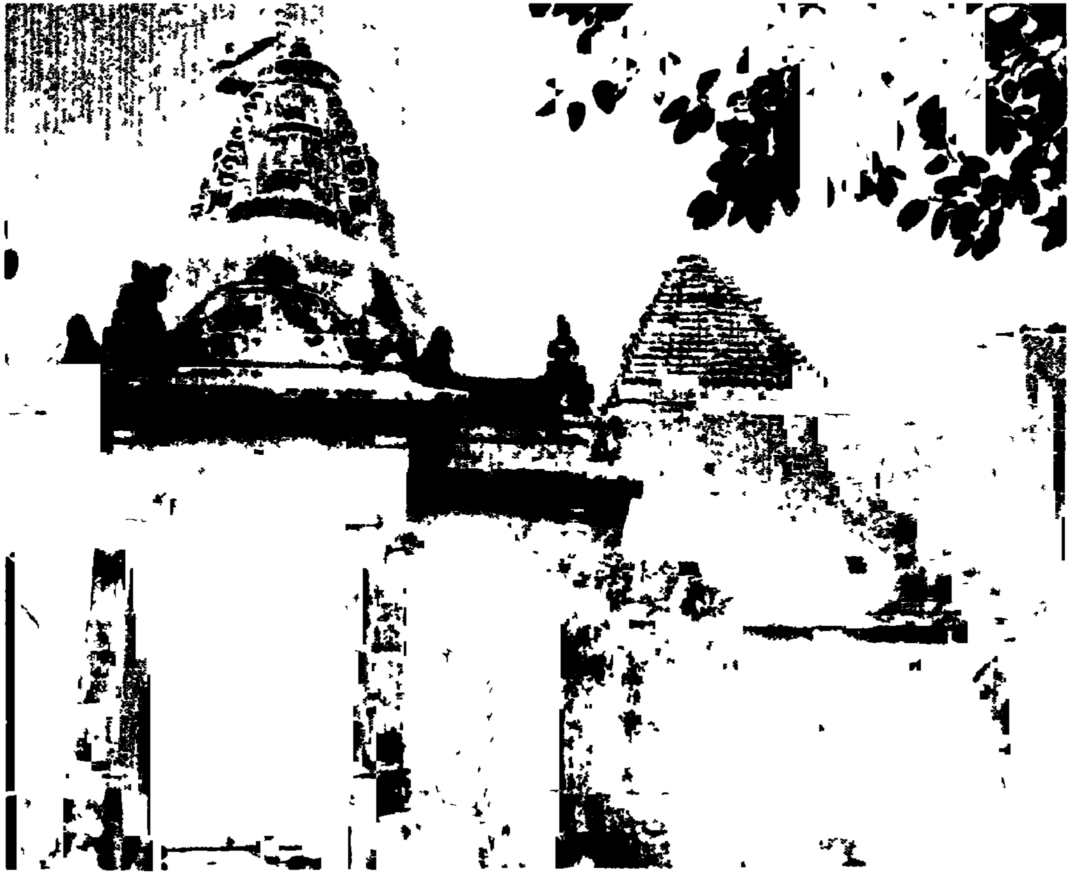
29 Fishermen's Camp at Jafrabad drying up fish on the sea-shore



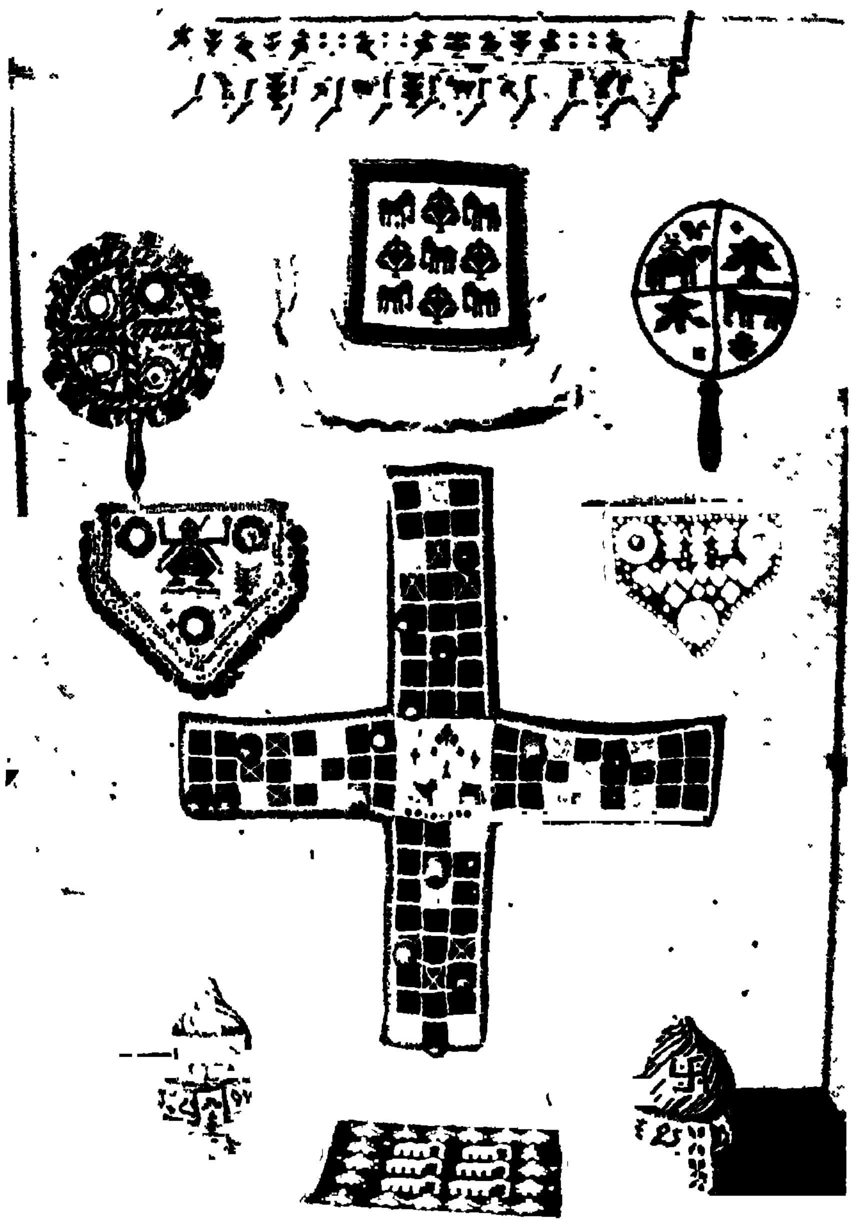
30 Fishermen's Camp at Jafrabad-huts on the sea-shore



31 Fish meal Plant at Jafrabad



32. Varah-Swarup --Temple at Varah Swarup Village (Taluka Jafrabad)



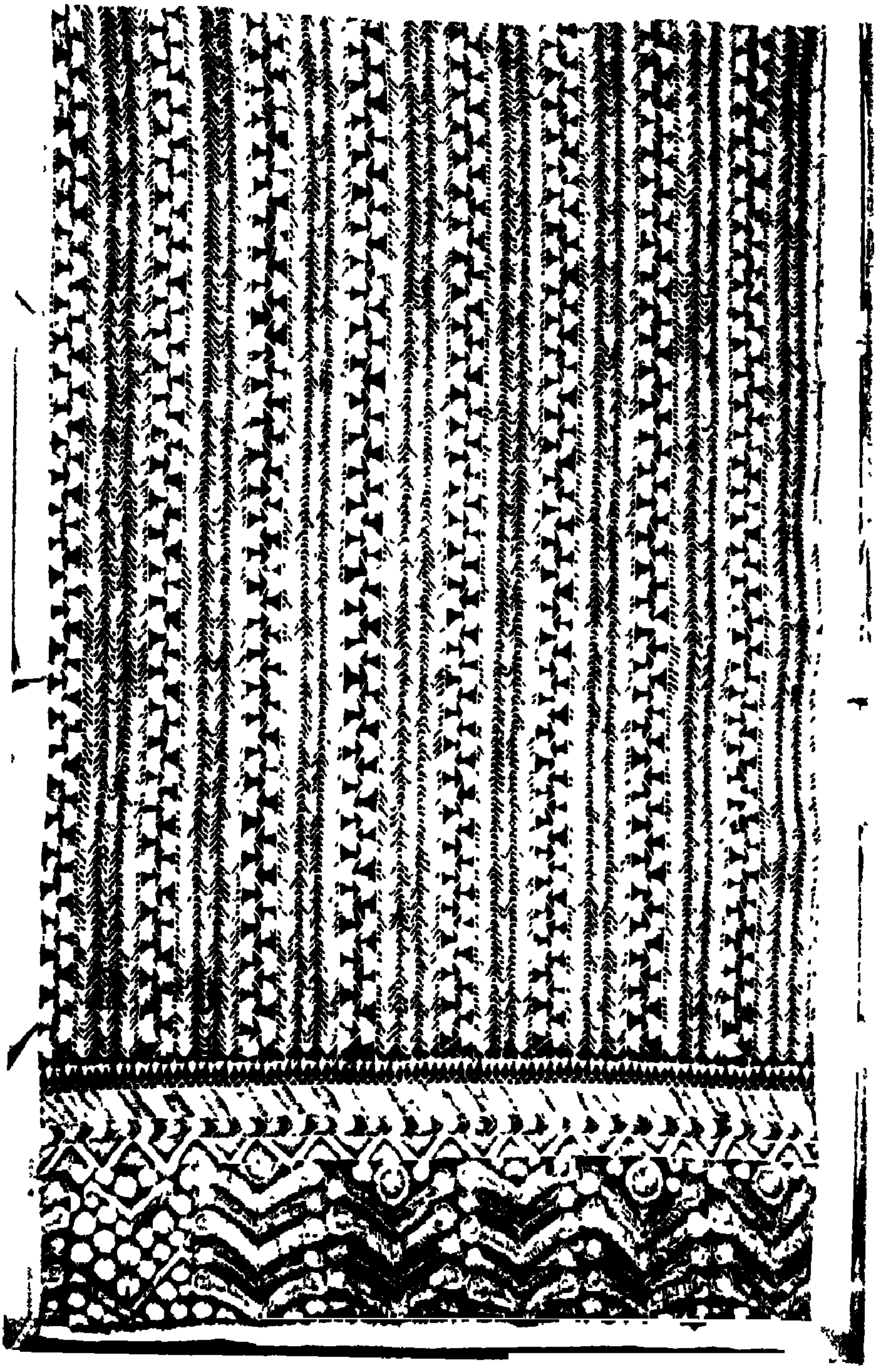
33 Some of the popular motifs of the bead work



34. *Chakla*—a coverlet, an elaborate piece of embroidery work depicting human, bird and animal motifs



35 *Chakla* a coverlet displaying a design studded with small mirrors (*Abhlas*)



36 *Hirbharat*— A special type of embroidery from the Jafrabad area

GLOSSARY

A

Acharya ..	.. A religious head; a preceptor
Adhar ..	.. Basis
Advaita ..	.. A doctrine of Hindu Philosophy propounded by Adi Shankaracharya stating that there is no duality between the soul and the God, but there is complete identity of the individual with the supreme spirit
Agarbatti ..	.. An incensed stick used in religious ceremonies
Ahimsa ..	.. Non-violence
Akika ..	.. A Muslim ceremony to be performed at certain intervals within a month after child birth
Aparokshanubhava	.. Mystical experience
Ashram ..	.. Hermitage
Aval Karkun..	.. First Clerk in the Mamlatdar's office in the Revenue Department

B

Babashahi ..	.. A unit of currency which was legal tender in the Gaekwad's territory till 1901
Bagayat ..	.. Irrigated
Baharvatu ..	.. Dacoity or outlawry
Bahushruta ..	.. Well-versed in the Vedas, learned
Bajri ..	.. Indian millet; name of a cereal, *Panicellaria Spicata*
Bal-mandir ..	.. A school for children below five years
Bal-wadi ..	.. A school for children below five years which combines learning and recreation
Bandhani ..	.. Tie and dye saree

B

Barkhali ..	.. A term used to denote alienated land in the former Baroda State
Barkhalidar ..	.. Holder of a *barkhali* land
Bhagat ..	.. A priest, a devotee
Bhagbatai ..	.. Crop-share system in revenue management
Bhajans ..	.. Devotional songs
Bhajan Mandlis	.. A group or association of devotees who sing devotional songs
Bhakhari ..	.. A bread of wheat
Bhamardo ..	.. A top
Bhat ..	.. Cooked rice
Bhavai ..	.. Folk-drama performed by peripatetic group mainly in the rural areas
Bhayat ..	.. Cadets, Brethren, Collaterals of the ruling chiefs
Bhitiya ..	.. Hanging on wall
Bhoodan ..	.. A movement started by Acharya Vinobaji in which land donations are made voluntarily by land-owners with a view to regranting the lands to the landless and the weaker sections of society
Bidi ..	.. Indigenous cigarette made of *tendu* leaves and tobacco
Bigha ..	.. A unit of measuring land
Buttis ..	.. Motifs

C

Chakla ..	.. Square coverlet, Square at cross roads
Chandarva ..	.. A canopy of cloth
Charani (Literature)	.. Bardic literature

C

Chhand ..	.. A verse
Chhatralaya ..	.. Students' hostel
Chhint ..	.. Printed cloth
Chopat ..	.. A game of chess
Choro ..	.. A public place in a village where a village accountant (Talati) holds his office and where meetings of gram panchayat are held
Chori ..	.. The square enclosure wherein the bride and the bridegroom take ceremonial rounds of the sacred fire during performance of the marriage ceremony
Chudli ..	.. An ivory bangle worn by a Hindu married woman whose husband is alive

D

Dal ..	.. Split pulse
Dandia ..	.. Sticks used at the time of playing *ras*, a typical folk-dance of Saurashtra
Dandia ras ..	.. Circular folk-dance with sticks
Darbargadh	.. Residence of a ruler, a royal palace
Darshan ..	.. Sight or glimpse of a deity
Dharmada ..	.. Charity
Dharmashala	.. Public rest-house or inn
Dhoti ..	.. A white garment worn round the waist by men
Diksha ..	.. Initiation into religious order among the Jains
Duha ..	.. A ballad

F

Farsan ..	.. Spicy fried preparations made mostly of gram flour
Fauzdar ..	.. A subordinate Police Officer

G

Garba ..	.. A sportive dance of females performed during *Navratri* days in Gujarat
Garbi ..	.. A sportive dance performed by males
Garuda ..	.. An eagle
Gau ..	.. Two miles or 3.2 kms.
Gaushala ..	.. A place where cows are kept
Ghani ..	.. Indigenous oil-mill driven by a bullock
Gharkhed ..	.. Personal cultivation
Ghee ..	.. Clarified butter
Gilli-danda ..	.. A country game of trip-stick played by children
Girasdar ..	.. Holder of *girasdari* land which were on alienated tenure
Girasdari ..	.. A system of land tenure in Saurashtra in which the holder of the alienated land enjoyed certain rights as to land and land revenue
Gol ..	.. Jaggery
Grahasthashrama	.. A second of the four stages of life among the Hindus
Gram ..	.. A village
Gram panchayat	.. A village council
Guru ..	.. A preceptor
Gurukula ..	.. A residential university or teaching institution, an institution revived mainly by the Arya Samajis

H

Hakim ..	.. A practitioner in the Unani system of medicine
Haks ..	.. Rights

H

Hansdi ..	.. A type of necklace made mostly of silver worn by women
Haveli ..	.. Temple of Pushtimargiya Vaishnava sect established by Shri Vallabhacharya
Hu-tu-tu ..	.. A type of team game

I

Ijara or Izara	.. A contract, monopoly
Inam ..	.. A tenure of alienated land
Indhoni ..	.. A circular thing to be placed on the head by women folk at the time of fetching water in pitchers or carrying head loads
Izardar ..	.. A contractor

J

Jagirdar ..	.. One who holds a *Jagir* which consisted of villages or parts of villages
Jan ..	.. Bridegroom's party
Janmabhoomi	.. Birth place
Jama ..	.. Tribute, revenue assessment
Jiwai ..	.. Land given to a cadet for maintenance or in lieu of service rendered to the ruler
Jowar ..	.. Name of a cereal, *Sorghum vulgare*

K

Kadla ..	.. Silver ornament worn on the anklets
Kalambandis	.. Agreements or conditions of lease, *Ijarapattas*
Kansar ..	.. A sweet preparation of wheat flour, clarified butter and sugar or jaggery
Kanyadan ..	.. Giving of daughter in marriage

K

Karmabhumi ..	.. A field of social service (activities) or a place where the main years of service were passed
Katha ..	.. A religious discourse; mythological legend
Kazi ..	.. Muslim judge during the rule of the Muslim rulers
Kediyu ..	.. Jacket worn by men reaching down to the waist
Kelavani Mandal	.. Educational Institution
Kevaladvaita	.. The doctrine of absolute identity with Brahma
Khadi ..	.. Indian home-spun cloth
Khala ..	.. Threshing floor
Khalsa ..	.. Agricultural land held directly from the State to which land revenue was payable
Kharapat ..	. Saline land
Kharif ..	.. The monsoon crop or season
Kharvas ..	.. Sailors or boat-men
Khatedar ..	.. A holder; an occupant
Kherati ..	.. Grant of land for charitable purpose
Khichadi ..	.. Hotchpotch; mixture of rice and pulse
Kho-Kho ..	.. A country game of getting up from sedentary posture and catching persons from other party
Kotar ..	.. Ravine
Kothli Chhodaman	.. Fee charged by an indigenous money-lender at the time of advancing loan
Kund ..	.. A small pond or reservoir

L

Laga ..	.. A tax, fee or cess
Lajjahoma ..	.. This ceremony is one of the most important ritual of the Hindu marriage. The ceremony of scattering fried rice or grain denotes a symbol of fruitfulness and prosperity. While the wife scatters grain, she prays for her husband's long life.
Langadi ..	.. An Indian game in which a player on one leg limps forward and tries to catch his opponents, who are within the prescribed limits

M

Ma-bap ..	.. Guardian, Government
Madaliyu ..	.. An amulet, talisman
Mahal ..	.. An administrative division of a district which is smaller than a taluka
Mahila Adhyapana Mandir	Training institution for female teachers
Mahila-Mandal	.. A women's society carrying on welfare activities for women
Malmal ..	.. Muslin
Mandal ..	.. An institution or organisation formed by a group of persons with some specific purpose
Mapani ..	.. Measurement
Math ..	.. A monastery of the Hindu priests
Matrikas ..	.. Local goddesses
Mug ..	.. Name of a pulse, *Phaseolus mungo*
Mulgirasias ..	.. Descendents of original proprietors who surrendered land to a neighbouring chief in return for protection

M

Mulukgiri ..	.. Land raiding system in Kathiawar under the Marathas; annual armed expedition for exacting tribute from chiefs; according to Colonel Walker, it means a seizure of the country or circuit of the country by Maratha for the recovery of the tribute
Murabba ..	.. Jam

N

Naib Fauzdar	.. An Assistant Police Officer below the rank of a Fauzdar
Naib Suba ..	.. An Assistant Governor or Revenue Commissioner of a province
Naka-bandis	.. Checkposts
Nala ..	.. Cause-way
Natra ..	.. Widow remarriage
Nazarana ..	.. Present, gift
Nesda ..	.. Hamlets of cattle breeders in forest areas
Nirvan ..	.. Attainment of absolution; Liberation
Nyayadhishi ..	.. A court of justice

O

Odhani ..	.. An upper garment worn by girls
Osari ..	.. A verandah in front of a house

P

Paghadi ..	.. A turban
Pakad-dav ..	.. An Indian game in which one player tries to catch his opponents. The area of the play is normally unlimited
Pan ..	.. Betel leaf or any leaf
Panchtantra	.. A Sanskrit book of stories and allegories containing wordly wisdom

P

Panetar	White silken *saree* with red border and tie and dye motifs worn by the bride at the time of marriage
Panigrahana	Acceptance of the hand of the bride by the bridegroom in the marriage ceremony
Pardah	Veil
Parsal	The front portion inside a house used as a multipurpose room
Patel	Village official
Pathshala	School, oriental school
Patta	A deed or lease of tenure
Payjama	A trouser
Pedhi	A commercial firm
Prant	A province, a district in the Baroda State, an administrative division lower than that of a district at present
Pucca	Solidly built; durable
Puranas	Sacred poetical works containing legendary accounts of persons and events of old times; the name of a certain class of sacred works ascribed to Vyasa, and containing the whole body of Hindu mythology
Puranik	Scholar in ancient literature
Purohit	Ritualist, the family priest

Q

Quran	The holy book of Islam

R

Rabi	The winter crop
Rangoli	Designs drawn with coloured powders on auspicious days

R

Rannade ..	.. Name of a family deity
Ras ..	.. A type of folk-dance; a sportive dance performed jointly by males and females
Ras-garba .	.. A type of folk-dance
Ras-Mandli .	.. A band of persons playing the sportive dance
Rudraksha ..	.. Rosary used by Shaivaites for counting beads and also worn round the neck; *Eacelocarpus ganitrus*
Rakhas	.. Watchmen

S

Sadhu ..	.. A mendicant; an ascetic
Sahukar ..	.. Money-lender
Sallo ..	.. Sari
Samadhi	Self-immolation; a memorial raised to honour a particular saint
Samvatsari	. Death anniversary
Sangha .	.. Association
Sankala .	. Foot-ornament made generally of silver
Santa-Kukdi	The name of an Indian game of hide and seek
Sanyasta ..	.. Asceticism, renunciation of the world
Saptapadi .	. Seven steps taken together by a bride and bridegroom round sacrifical fire during the marriage ceremony which makes the marriage complete and irrevocable
Saree ..	.. Hindu woman's chief garment draped round the body
Sathia ..	.. An auspicious mark drawn in front of a house
Savant .	. Man of learning

S

Shastras ..	.. Hindu scriptures; sacred books
Shastris .	Persons well versed in the *Shastras* (Hindu classics)
Shibir	.. A camp
Shraddha ..	. Obsequial ceremony performed for the salvation of the departed soul
Sishta Vanchan	.. Model reading
Siyashai .	.. Name of the currency in the Gaekwad's territory
Sutras ..	Set of aphorisms in the Sanskrit literature

T

Talati ..	.. Village accountant
Tali ..	.. Promise given by a fisherman in token of concluding a sale transaction
Talukdar ..	. An estate holder
Tappa	.. Headquarters of a group of villages
Thandar .	An officer in charge of a *thana*
Tirthankar	One of the 24 incarnations of God worshipped by the Jains
Topi	.. A cap
Toran	.. A festoon

U

Udhad	.. Lump sum
Udyog Mandir	. Technical institution
Utara .	. A place where the arrangements are made for the marriage party to stay

V

Vahivatdar ..	.. An administrator or a revenue officer in charge of a taluka

V

Vaidya	A practitioner in the Ayurvedic system of medicine
Varistha	Supreme
Vartanias	A village servant useful to Government
Vasvayas	A class of artisans settled in a village
Vav	A step-well
Veda	Ancient Hindu scriptures written in old form of Sanskrit
Vedanga	A part of the Vedas. They are six in all
Veth	Forced labour
Vighoti	Cash assessment
Vihar	A Buddhist monastery
Vishishtadvaita	Qualified non-duality; a doctrine of Hindu philosophy propounded by Ramanuja, called qualified monism, by which the individual soul and the insensate world are the attributes of the Supreme soul and form his body
Vyayamshala	Gymnasium

Z

Zanana Class	Ladies class

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INDEX

A—*contd.*

A—concld

B

B—contd

C

C—*contd.*

D

D—*contd*

D—*concld.*

E

F

G

K—contd.

K—concld.

L

M

M—contd

M—concld.

N

O

P

P—*concld.*

R

R—concld.

S

S—concld.

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